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ABSTRACT

A project to determine the effectiveness of a program designed to create more positive attitudes among students studying social studies through use of simulation games is described in this dissertation. The purposes of the project were to describe the design and implementation of a plan for such a program and to determine whether simulation games could bring about greater student interst and motivation for secondary students of varying abilities. The dissertation contains a review of the literature, methodology of the study, discussion about simulation games, presentation and analysis of the data, and conlusions and implications. One hundred 11th-grade students from Elmsford, New York, were tested using five simulation games--"1787," "Democracy," "Inter-Nation," "Hat in the Ring," and "The Union Divides". Data for the project included responses to opinion-type questionnaires, teacher observations, interviews, written reports, and student records. Results suggest that simulation games do enhance student interest and do produce more positive attitudes toward the social studies. Because the extent to which attitude changes were due solely to the simulation games was not established, it was concluded that no single factor associated with changes in classroom methodology could be identified as having greater influence on attitudes. The dissertation includes an extensive bibliography. (Author/ND)

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# UTILIZATION OF SELECTED SIMULATION GAMES TO FOSTER IMPROVED ATTITUDES AMONG 11th GRADE STUDENTS ENGAGED IN THE STUDY OF SOCIAL STUDIES

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## STATEMENT OF THE PROJECT

In this project, effort has been made to determine the effectiveness of a program designed to bring about more positive attitudes among students engaged in the study of social studies. The specific purposes of this project were to describe the design and implementation of a plan to improve social studies instruction using simulation games and determine whether simulation games could bring about greater student interest and motivation for secondary students of varying abilities.

## PROCEDURE

A total of one hundred students representing the entire 11th grade population at Alexander Hamilton High School, Elmsford, New York, studied the regularly prescribed social studies course using five simulation games as a primary learning source. The games were used during a period of twenty weeks. The students were divided into five classes; class sizes ranged between sixteen and twenty-five students.

The sources of data included responses to opinion-type questionnaires by participating students, teachers, and parents. In addition, teacher observations, interviews, written reports, and student records were compiled.

Major attention was focused on student attitudes, achievement, outcome of objectives, and teaching-learning techniques. Although the course requirements were similar to those found in any New York State 11th year social studies syllabus, the methodology employed was distinctively different. Scheduling students for instruction and

procedures for class section grouping were related directly to the design described for using simulation games. Instructional materials ranged from the very simple to the complex and were chosen on the basis of student interest and relevance.

Essentially, simulation games were intended to provide opportunities for unique kinds of self-initiated learnings whereby social situations were replicated within the classroom. The teacher's role was to introduce the simulation, a course of events determined by existing social, economic, and political conditions. The students were encouraged to assume responsibility for responses leading to decision making. The real-world conflicts and problems that arose out of the simulated models provided varieties of experimental learning intended to prepare the individual for the kinds of personal actions he would be taking throughout his lifetime.

## CONCLUSIONS

The study suggested that simulation games did enhance student interest and did produce more positive attitudes towards the social studies. Although not every student had clearly discernible gains as indicated by grades or teacher opinions, the project experience arrested the downward trend of negative student feelings about the social studies. To what extent changes in attitudes were due solely to simulation games is not established. It appears that no single factor associated with the changes in classroom methodology could be identified as having greater influence than any other.

Appropriate teaching methods and materials specifically related to individual needs in fulfilling course requirements seemed essential

to the success of the project. If the administrative and instructional variables described in this project could be isolated and studied, the writer believes that many more students could respond more positively to the study of social studies.

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## Chapter I

## INTRODUCTION

Social scientists are increasingly conscious of the need for students to acquire developmental skills and genuine understandings regarding man and society. "Skills include ways of dealing with social studies as a field of study and with other people in human association."[1]

Carpenter states that "future citizens must be made aware of all forms of persuasion and must know how to find facts and draw vital conclusions. . . ."[2] As such, the need is great for students to develop skills necessary "for dealing with very difficult problematic situations quickly."[3]

Teachers of the social studies are concerned that students may not be receiving sufficient training in making logical decisions or in bearing up to responsibilities.

They do not learn persuasion and negotiation skills,

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[1]John Jarolimek, "The Psychology of Skill Development," Skill Development in Social Studies, ed. Helen McCracken Carpenter (Washington D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1971), p. 18.

[2]Helen McCracken Carpenter, "Skills for Democratic Citizenship in the 1960's," Skill Development in Social Studies, ed. Helen McCracken Carpenter (Washington D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1971), p. 14.

[3]Ibid.

> how to develop problem solving strategies in complicated and changing situations, or how to organize groups and manage them effectively to accomplish a task. Yet these are the very skills that young people will need when they later move into complex and dynamic business and professional environments.[1]
>
> It would be helpful to know a great deal more about problem-solving skills, about logical and critical thinking, and about those conditions of life that hinder skillful thought processes.[2]

If, as Bruner suggests, "learning is based on experiencing and drawing conclusions based on previous experiences,"[3] it seems clear why the effective teaching of social studies is most difficult when only traditional techniques are used. Learning by doing, a method frequently used by teachers of mathematics and science, is not a technique usually available in the teaching of social studies. "Another teaching technique is needed for the purpose of motivating students to learn as well as increasing their ability to learn."[4]

During the past five years especially, members of the administration and social studies department at Alexander Hamilton High School, Elmsford, New York, had expressed concern over the problems associated with the teaching of social studies. It was agreed that alternatives to classroom organizations, methodology, and selection

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[1]Jerry F. Fletcher, "Evaluation of Learning in Two Social Studies Simulation Games," Simulation and Games, II, No. 2 (1971), 259-60.

[2]Helen McCracken Carpenter, "Skills for Democratic Citizenship in the 1960's," Skill Development in Social Studies, ed. Helen McCracken Carpenter (Washington D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1971), p. 15.

[3]Jerome S. Bruner, The Process of Education (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1960), p. 48.

[4]Edwin Fenton, The New Social Studies (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1967), pp. 107-12.

of teaching materials were essential if students were to respond more positively to the study of social studies.

The social studies department searched for alternatives to classroom instruction that would increase student interest and performance and, to a greater degree, ascertain that worthwhile objectives were being reached.

In general, changes reflected a greater use of multi-media resources and a greater emphasis on concept development. Instruction generally remained centered around recommended New York State syllabuses and locally prepared courses of study.

Although teachers were encouraged by improved student achievement, problems persisted in advancing opportunities for students to acquire (1) skills needed to develop problem solving techniques and (2) greater awareness and perspective of historical events. In addition, various attempts to stimulate enrollment in social studies elective courses did not materialize.

It became clear that a need existed for an adequate study that would investigate procedures of teaching more suited to the requirements of students assigned to social studies classes and that would allow a more critical assessment of students for whom special efforts were being made.

After careful study, it was felt that simulation games were a technique that might result in increased student interest, improved student understanding of social studies, improved achievement, and an effective means for improving student motivation.

Simulation games are among several alternative systems designed to improve the teaching of social studies. Such games

attempt to give the student a vivid lifelike experience that could lead to some direct contact with particular phenomenon being studied rather than just learning and talking "about" it. By means of simulation games, it may be possible for a school to create a laboratory approach similar to that which now exists for physics, chemistry, and biology.[1]

> Since all other techniques and strategies in the teaching of social studies have not fully "turned the student on," participation in simulated learning activities could provide a new dimension in helping the student enjoy and understand his social studies courses. It is a more humane way to teach.[2]

The Supervising Principal of the Elmsford Schools agreed to support an action program involving the teaching of the social studies and relating specifically to the use of simulation games.

This study focuses on the use of selected simulation games as a technique for advancing the study of social studies for students at Alexander Hamilton High School, Elmsford, New York. It is descriptive in nature.

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[1]Jerry F. Fletcher, "Evaluation of Learning in Two Social Studies Simulation Games," Simulation and Games, II No. 3 (1971), 259.

[2]Gerald Thorpe, "A Brief Survey of Research in Learning Through the Use of Simulation Games," High School Journal, VII No. 3 (1971), 454.

## Chapter II

## REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter first reviews how simulation games evolved to become a potentially viable method for teaching social studies. General research aimed at improving student attitudes toward social studies is examined next. There follows a description of selected programs devoted to the use of simulation games in the classroom.

### SIMULATION GAMES: A RATIONALE FOR TEACHING-LEARNING METHODOLOGY

Play, according to Piaget, is an imaginary imitative activity that serves as a primary socializing influence on children.[1] Play becomes a game when formal rules or constraints are added and a system of rewards or payoffs is present. Learning games are a modern hybrid used by educators to help motivate students and instill desired behaviors.

Huizinga, in his classic book Homo Ludens, described man as a playing animal.[2] He suggested that play is a type of self-conceived activity that needs little outside justification for its existence, and thus brings about its own reward. He speculated that nearly all man's activities are related to play.

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[1]Jean Piaget, Six Psychological Studies (New York: Random House, 1967), p. 89.

[2]John Huizinga, Homo Ludens (Boston: Beacon Press, 1950), p. 52.

According to his theory:

> Man has forgotten that he is just playing somewhere in his evolution and is desperately searching for meaning in daily events, many of which have no significance other than their own existence.

Berne, in his book Games People Play, also developed a theory of play, but much different from that of Huizinga's.[1] Berne referred to the destructive manipulation of self and others as the game people play. People play particular kinds of games because of their inability or unwillingness to face life in a mature manner. The above two contrasting notions of play serve to illustrate that the concept has many dimensions. A single theory of play or simulation is thus likely to be a gross over-simplification.

Social scientists trace the beginning of formal games and simulation to war games. Chess, an example of this type of game, was probably designed by noblemen to entertain themselves while brushing up on military strategy. Raser made the observation that the terms "simulation" and "game" have often been used interchangebly in literature.[2] He felt the following distinction should be made:

> The more explicit is the "operating model," that is, the greater the extent to which all the seemingly salient variables are formally pre-programmed and the more it is believed that the model is a complete and accurate analogue to some "referent" system, the more likely it is that the model will be called a simulation. On the other hand, the more it relies on human participation as an intrinsic component in its operation, the more likely it will be called a game.[3]

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[1]Edward Berne, Games People Play (New York: Grove Press, 1964), pp. 14-15.

[2]James R. Raser, Simulation and Society (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1969), pp. 50-51.

[3]Ibid., p. 10.

Huizinga's definition of a game includes the dimension of rules:

> A voluntary activity or occupation executed within certain fixed limits of time and place, according to rules freely accepted but absolutely binding, having its aim in itself and accompanied by a feeling of tension, joy, and consciousness that is different from ordinary life.[1]

Brody clarified the distinction between a theory of games and a model for simulation:

> The Theory of Games ("Games Theory") provides a means of describing the strategic behavior of one or more actors who have to make choices in conflict situations (Games) in which the payoffs (potential outcomes) are a function of the choices made by all parties to the conflict. The Game Theory model is normative, in that it prescribes the choice or combination of choices which leads to the best payoff under the circumstances of a given conflict situation. The theory, moreover, postulates a "rational" actor who will always follow this best strategy. A political game (or simulation) is an operating model which represents an attempt on the part of the theorist, through the representation of an empirical system to provide himself with information about real states of the system.[2]

The above defines Game Theory "as a set of mathematical tools for dealing with discrete types of conflict situations." Learning games and/or simulations, in contrast, are attempts by theorists to fabricate operational models of physical and social systems.

Abt, a pioneer in the field of gaming, in writing on the use of simulation games as a strategy of instruction, distinguished three types of simulation games:

1. showdown--where each player exhibits his best

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[1]John Huizinga, Homo Ludens (Boston: Beacon Press, 1950), p. 28.

[2]Robert Brody and others, Simulation in International Relations: Development for Research and Teaching (Englewood, California: Prentice-Hall, 1963), pp. 211-12.

physical or mental performance without interferences from any other player, and the results are compared.

2. strategy--in which opposing players interfere with each other.

3. combination--games incorporating exchanges of strategies preliminary to showdowns.[1]

Simulation games may take any of the above forms. Abt stated that simulation games may also be classified as skill, chance, reality, or fantasy depending on the game's emphasis. In games of skill, the winner is said to be determined by his relative capabilities. Skill games tend to reward achievement and individual initiative, although they may have a negative value in discouraging slow learners by revealing their deficiencies. In games of chance, Abt stated that the players' capabilities have no bearing on the outcome, yet they have an educational value since they may show the limitation of effort and skill.[2] This may have the effect of humbling the over achievers. Chance games are said to be most popular with slum population where a significant number of underachievers may be found. Chance games also have negative effects by encouraging magical thinking and passivity. Abt said:

> Reality games are really simulation of real world operations. They teach the student structural relationships and exploit the student's craving for adult reality.[3]

According to Abt, these games may tend to make students over impressed with the predictability of events. Fantasy games, the last classification

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[1]Clark C. Abt, "Games for Learning," Simulation Games in Learning, eds. Sarane Boocock and E. O. Schild (Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications, Inc., 1968), pp. 67-68.

[2]Ibid.

[3]Ibid., p. 69.

used by Abt, included activities like dancing and skiing; these may give emotional uplift and stimulate the imagination.[1]

Boocock and Schild suggested that learning games for teaching purposes have gone through three distinct periods of development.[2] During the first period (1959 to 1963), social scientists discovered gaming as an innovative experience for the classroom. Many games were designed and field tested but little evidence was produced to support optimistic claims for the technique. The second period (1963 to 1965) was characterized by researchers attempting to conduct controlled experiments. The period was "generally inconclusive and a sobering experience for researchers."[3] It appeared that contemporary games had many flaws and were not a panacea for education. These scientists also reported that measurement tools were inadequate to gauge the true impact of games.

Two somewhat conflicting general attitudes developed. One expressed by Thorelli and Graves felt games did teach, and work with such games should be continued.[4] The other feeling, stated by Cherryholmes, recommended a retreat from the original hypothesis that games could teach better than conventional materials. He saw the

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[1]Clark C. Abt, "Games for Learning," Simulation Games in Learning, eds. Sarane Boocock and E. O. Schild (Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications, Inc., 1968), p. 77.

[2]Sarane Boocock and E. O. Schild, "The Future of Simulation Games," Simulation Games in Learning, eds. Sarane Boocock and E. O. Schild (Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications, Inc., 1968), pp. 255-68.

[3]Ibid.

[4]Harold B. Thorelli and Robert L. Graves, International Operations Simulation (New York: Free Press, 1964), pp. 105-06.

technique as more of a motivational device for changing attitudes.[1]

The third and present period began in 1965. During this period, games have been field tested in a wide variety of educational settings and a pool of data concerning learning effects has been gathered. Snyder indicated that the present trend within the contemporary simulation movement is the application of a variety of experimental techniques in the use of simulation games.[2] He stated a need to:

> 1. Use human subjects under quasi-laboratory conditions to create replicas of complex organizations, systems, and social processes.
>
> 2. Use human subjects in non-laboratory but contrived "natural" settings for the purposes listed under number one.
>
> 3. Use machines to experimentally simulate mental and social processes, as well as social systems.[3]

Further study of the literature reveals that between 1947 and 1959 experimental techniques using simulation games were confined largely to limited areas of individual behavior. The difficulties associated with this type of experimentation were thoroughly explored by Campbell and Stanley.[4] During the last five or six years, according to Cohen, these techniques have been included in study of business,

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[1]Cleo Cherryholmes, "Some Current Research on Effectiveness of Educational Simulation: Implication for Alternative Strategies," American Behavioral Scientist, X (September, 1966), 4-7.

[2]Richard C. Snyder, "Some Perspectives on the Use of Experimental Techniques in the Study of International Relations," Simulations in International Relations: Developments for Research and Teaching, eds. H. Guetzkow and others (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1963), p. 3.

[3]Ibid., pp. 4-5.

[4]Donald T. Campbell and Julius C. Stanley, "Experimental and Quasi-Experimental Designs for Research on Teaching," Methods of Research and Teaching, ed. N. L. Gage (Chicago: Rand McNally and Co., 1963), pp. 171-246.

decision making, bargaining, diplomatic games, and man machine systems.[1]

Cohen pointed out that:

> Political science is witnessing a burgeoning interest in techniques of political simulation, or political gaming, with the purpose of bringing problems of the political world closer to the experience of individual students, scholars, or practitioners; and for the purpose of overcoming the limitations that historical reality--especially in the international field --impose on the scientific method. The forms of the simulations that are being employed are varied: e.g., there are attempts to replicate particular situations by having teams of students play the parts of decision-makers in fictitious nations; there are attempts to simulate internatical reality by the device of computer techniques; there are "reality" games in which players take the parts of real-life decision-makers in particular countries, working their way through realistic problems as they are introduced.[2]

Educational applications using simulation games as a teaching technique may still be more potential than actual. During the past fifteen years, too many examples of actual simulation were related to activities associated with the military, business, and industrial complex. Within the past eight or nine years, however, some movement has been made to introduce simulation to the social sciences.

"Like a variety of other research techniques, simulation is merely a tool, and only one of many teaching methods available to the social scientist."[3]

According to Nesbitt, the greatest strength for games of simulation lies in their effectiveness in advancing student interest

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[1]Bernard C. Cohen, "Political Gaming in the Classroom," Journal of Politics, XXIV (May, 1962), 367.

[2]Ibid., p. 368.

[3]Richard E. Dawson, "Simulation in Social Sciences," Simulation in Social Sciences, ed. H. Guetzkow (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1962), pp. 1-15.

and involvement.[1] A second advantage of games is related to the psychology of human relations in the classroom. The dual role of the teacher as teacher and judge is a formidable obstacle to learning. The judicial activities of the teacher can arouse resentment and hostility among students. Games overcome this problem by being self-judging since the outcome decides the winner and indicates satisfactory performances. The teacher thereby escapes the role of judge. Thus, one source of classroom hostility could disappear.[2]

The immediacy of feedback of students is a third advantage for simulation. In most other educational media, the student has difficulty gauging his performance and identifying his errors. Games not only generate feedback on unsatisfactory performances quickly, but also provide immediate reinforcement to those adopting correct strategies. In all cases, students are forced to recognize the consequences of their previous actions.[3]

The fact that eventual success in games is dependent upon effective play provides a fourth advantage. Students clearly must learn to distinguish among available relationships, strategies, decisions, and outcomes. They develop skills at bargaining, negotiation, and compromise. The necessity for making decisions under conditions of uncertainty leads students to develop strategies which take account of risk and probabilities. These are skills which are difficult to develop

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[1]William A. Nesbitt, Simulation Games for the Social Studies Classroom (New York: Foreign Policy Association, 1971), pp. 118-22.

[2]Ibid., pp. 118-19.

[3]Ibid.

by use of other media.[1]

A fifth advantage lies in the student's heightened sense of being able to understand the world about him. In simulation students feel themselves as causes of events and not merely passive spectators. In a study of social organizations, Melvin Seeman noted that "the ability to learn and retain knowledge related to the individual's future depends upon his feelings of efficacy."[2]

The temporal dimension of education highlights a sixth advantage. Most teaching is directed towards a distant and happy future, a future which is so far removed from most students that it has little direct relevance. Simulation games bring either the future or the past into the present, allowing the student to play roles and enter into situations that he otherwise only glimpses. To succeed in the game, he must abide by the rules and survive the moves of other players. The interaction with other players, the game rules and environment, and the player objectives all contribute to the student's acquisition of society's values. In this way, games may contribute to the socialization of the student.[3]

> It is no wonder, then, that social studies teachers, have become increasingly interested in the possibilities of simulated games; for they seem not only to involve the student and to absorb his interest but also help him to learn better than do other methods.[4]

Walter Cronkite, in the CBS television program "The Remarkable

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[1]William A. Nesbitt, Simulation Games for the Social Studies Classroom (New York: Foreign Policy Association, 1971), pp. 120-21.

[2]Ibid.

[3]Ibid., p. 122.

[4]Ibid.

Schoolhouse," summed up the promise of simulation games when he said, "By participating, by playing a game, an otherwise dull subject becomes fascinating and unforgettable to the students."[1]

## SIMULATION GAMES: A RATIONALE FOR IMPROVING STUDENT ATTITUDES TOWARD THE SOCIAL STUDIES

The need for high school students to acquire greater interest in and more positive attitudes toward the study of social studies is a basic premise under which simulation games are being advanced as a viable teaching technique.

> Teachers and researchers know that student interest is a major factor in the learning process. Jerome Bruner whose book, The Process of Education, has had such a great impact on education methods in social studies as well as other disciplines since publication in 1960, now admits student interest was taken for granted. Student interest is crucial in the learning process, at least in its present institutional structure. Thorpe says, "student interest cannot be seriously considered as an end in itself." True, but it is the strongest proven argument for simulation games and may be the determining factor in the minds of many teachers.[2]

Several studies suggest that student attitudes relating to the study of social studies are often not favorable. What may be a commonly held attitude toward the subject was illustrated by Patterson when he wrote that "students characteristically regard social studies as a crashing bore."[3] Patterson's assertion is supported by a number

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[1]William A. Nesbitt, Simulation Games for the Social Studies Classroom (New York: Foreign Policy Association, 1971), p. 123.

[2]James R. Raser, Simulation and Society (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1969), p. 28.

[3]Franklin Patterson, "Social Science and the New Curriculum," Revolution in Teaching: New Theory, Technology and Curricula, eds. Alfred de Grazia and David A. Sohn (New York: Bantam Books, 1964), p. 289.

of earlier studies undertaken at both the elementary and secondary levels by Harper,[1] Outland and Jones,[2] and Chase.[3]

More recently, Mark Krug indicated that a number of studies reported students placing history at or near the bottom of their preferences.[4] Krug cited a study conducted by three history professors from the University of Indiana who, in carrying out their research on the status of the teaching of history, interviewed over thirteen hundred high school history teachers in Indiana, spoke with a large number of students, and visited many classrooms across the state.[5] "They discovered," wrote Krug, "widespread apathy and even hostility toward American History as taught on the high school level."[6] Krug suggested that both students and teachers found the subject boring, partly because history as taught in many high schools, was simply a process calling for memorization of facts and dates.

Gross and Badger suggested that student complaints concerning social studies stem not from the content of the course but from the

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[1]Charles A. Harper, "Why Do Children Dislike History?" Social Education, I (October, 1937), 43-44.

[2]George E. Outland and Louis T. Jones, "High School Pupils Evaluate the Social Studies," The School Review, XLVIII (October, 1940), 592-99.

[3]W. Linwood Chase, "Subject Preferences of Fifth Grade Children," The Elementary School Journal, L (December, 1949), 89-92.

[4]Mark M. Krug, History and the Social Sciences: New Approaches to the Teaching of the Social Studies (Waltham, Massachusetts: Blaisdell Publishing Co., 1967), pp. 170-73.

[5]Ibid.

[6]Ibid.

ways in which the material is organized and presented.[1] This was supported by a 1965 Syracuse University study by John Kenyon.[2] He found that the attitudes of 671 selected high school seniors toward the social sciences was quite unfavorable. To determine the students' attitude toward the social sciences, Kenyon gathered attitude statements from a wide variety of materials in which the social sciences was either criticized or lauded. A group of six judges (following L. L. Thurstone's equal appearing interval technique) divided the statements into two categories: favorable and unfavorable. A Likert-type attitude measuring instrument was then constructed using eighty of the best items. Data obtained indicated a low pupil interest level.

Few studies have attempted to investigate the influence of instructional techniques as a means of fostering more favorable attitudes toward the social studies. Moore and Syne used a questionnaire on which students could record their preferences, suggestions, and criticisms.[3] They attempted to determine student reaction using primary source materials as opposed to the more traditional approach.

The students overwhelmingly favored the new source materials and methodology to the more traditional presentation; 371 students reported they enjoyed reading documents in their original form, while only 50 replied in the negative. Out of 397 students, 352 indicated

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[1]Richard E. Gross and William V. Badger, "Social Studies," Encyclopedia of Educational Research, ed. Chester W. Harris (3rd ed.; New York: Macmillan Co., 1960), p. 1305.

[2]John G. Kenyon, "Attitudes Toward and Knowledge of the Social Sciences Held by Certain High School Seniors" (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, Syracuse University, 1965), pp. 22-24.

[3]John E. Moore, Jr., and S. A. Syne, "ESI and the Social Studies: A Progress Report," The Social Studies, LIX (April, 1968), 50-52.

their preference to work with this kind of material in the future rather than revert to a more traditional mode of presentation.

Kavett also found a high level of student interest using a similar technique.[1] He evaluated one unit of a social studies curriculum, prepared by Education Services Incorporated, in terms of reading ability, pupil interest, and pupil questions and activities. Parallel segments of a small sample of conventional texts were made more readable, (that is, they were written at a less difficult reading level); they were found to be much less interesting to the students.

The notion that attitudes of students toward a subject could be changed was also supported by Williamson.[2] He compared an in-depth approach (characterized by the study of fewer topics and the use of primary source material) with a more conventional in-breadth approach (defined as a traditional survey approach with emphasis on coverage of all events and periods) to the teaching of American History to high school students. As measured by Remmer's "Test of Attitude Toward Any School Subject," Williamson hypothesized that in-depth approach would produce greater mean gain scores of the students' attitude toward history than the in-breadth approach. His findings showed that the students using an in-depth approach had a more positive attitude toward the subject than those using the in-breadth approach. There were, however, no significant differences between groups with respect to content learned or problem solving ability acquired.

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[1]Hyman Kavett, "An Analysis of a Junior High School Social Studies Unit According to Selected Criteria," Dissertation Abstracts, XXVII (June, 1967), 4044A.

[2]James L. Williamson, "The Effectiveness of Two Approaches to the Teaching of High School American History," Dissertation Abstracts, XXVII (March, 1967) 2961A.

The several studies reported below suggest additional ways in which investigators have attempted to measure student attitudes.

Dawson examined the attitudinal changes of students in his college economics classes.[1] From 1960 to 1963, a questionnaire was given to each of his classes in an attempt to determine the change in the attitude of his students toward organized labor. The students were to mark "sympathetic" if they considered union aims and activities generally favorable, "unsympathetic" if they were unfavorable to union aims and activities, and "neutral" or "no opinion" if this represented their attitude. The instrument was administered at the beginning and again at the end of each semester's course. The attitude determined prior to the course indicated that the majority of the students were "unsympathetic" to union aims and activities. Results obtained at the end of the course revealed no significant change in the attitude of students towards organized labor.

Levin used a questionnaire to determine the effects of class size on retention, grades, absence, dropout, and attitude.[2] The changes in class size produced no dramatic changes except for a small but significant increase in interest in the subject matter.

The interview method was employed by Schnepf in her attempts to compare the attitudes of black and white children toward police, law, and freedom. Results indicated that the black children exhibited a more disparaging attitude toward police, law, and freedom than did

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[1]George C. Dawson, "Changing Students Attitudes," Improving College and University Teaching, XIV (Summer, 1966), 42-44.

[2]Harry M. Levin, "Differences in Outcomes Between Large and Small Classes in Western Civilization and Economics," Dissertation Abstracts, XXVIII (November, 1967), 1708A.

the white children.[1]

Poulous used a five point scale in recording the attitudes of black members of parent-teacher organizations toward pictures of black personalities and hypothetical events to be included in junior high school social studies textbooks.[2] These members had been very critical of the textbooks that were in use. The respondents viewed pictures and recorded their attitudes on a five point scale from "strongly approve" to "strongly disapprove." The results showed strong approval for a majority of the materials to be included in the new textbooks.

It would appear from several of the studies cited that changes in student interest and attitudes might better be realized by employing teaching strategies offering a greater variety of options.

## USE OF SIMULATION GAMES IN THE CLASSROOM

Simulation games have been used to teach a variety of groups: elementary and senior school students, business management personnel, and army officers. However, information is still limited concerning their effectiveness as a technique for teaching. Although as many as fifty studies have attempted to investigate the impact of simulation games, the studies vary enormously in quality, scope, design, and findings.

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[1]Virginia Schnepf, "A Study of Political Socialization in a Subculture: Negro Children's Knowledge of and Attitudes Toward the Police, Law, and Freedom," Dissertation Abstracts, XXVII (January, 1967), 2016A.

[2]Nicholis Poulous, "Negro Attitudes Toward Pictures for Junior High School Social Studies Textbooks," Dissertation Abstracts, XXVII (August, 1966), 332A-33A.

Some researchers have enthusiastically endorsed the use of simulation games. Lee, for example, said that simulation is:

> an ideal method for modernizing the social studies curriculum in secondary schools. Simulation games can be one of the foundations for a truly vitalized educational system, and. . .this technique given the right conditions can make a profound contribution to the growth and development of our young people so that they can be better prepared for life in the modern world.[1]

Wentworth was more cautious in his support of simulation games.

> Although the exercises. . .are an extremely useful and interesting part of a teaching-learning experience, they are not effective without other curriculum support, i.e., other materials, other activities, other media, and a well prepared teacher. Preliminary evaluations from teacher-users indicate that the best exercises provide the most effective teaching-learning experience when used as part of a total curriculum plan.[2]

It would appear that most research studies seem to agree that more study is needed before definite conclusions can be reached. Lee believed that too many studies have focused on factual learning.

> Simulation games, in effect, have been assessed up to now primarily in terms of criteria more appropriate to traditional classroom techniques. As the main objective for using simulation games presumably is not to teach only facts, but to go beyond this--to develop insights, concepts, awareness and skills of a kind ordinarily not possible with traditional methods--means that the potentially unique contribution of the game technique to education has not yet been appropriately tested.[3]

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[1]Robert S. Lee, "The Inter-Nation Simulation as a Learning Experience" (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, IBM's System Research Institute, 1970), pp. 93-94.

[2]Donald R. Lewis and David Wentworth, Games and Simulations for Teaching Economics (New York: Joint Council on Economic Education, 1971), p. 8.

[3]Robert S. Lee, "The Inter-Nation Simulation as a Learning Experience" (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, IBM's System Research Institute, 1970), p. 16.

Simulation games seem to have had their greatest impact in the area of affective learning. Researchers have reported positive student responses after participating in a simulation game.

Studies, however, reflect but brief treatment, in many cases lasting one or two days.

> If we are to get reliable information on student interest, it is obvious that researchers will have to commit themselves to intensive, long range research projects.[1]

Thorpe agreed:

> If simulation can be perfected through more careful design and expert administration, the technique might prove a very important one for the schools. What is needed now is a more critical analysis of games, a more serious effort, a sound design based on clearly formulated behavioral objectives, soundly devised research designs, and more thought given to strategies of administration and "debriefing." Simulation can achieve many of the promises for it if these steps are now taken.[2]

Studies surveyed were based on simulation games created by the experimenters. Doctoral research studies, administered by experimenters who have no vested interests in simulation, are limited. Simulation games must also be turned over to "average" teachers, who would be teaching them if and when they were adopted on a broad scale.[3]

> We cannot blame teachers who have become overzealous devotees; they know that simulation motivates, involves the kids, and they have no certain evidence that might bring them to question what threatens to become a new panacea.[4]

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[1]Donald R. Lewis and David Wentworth, Games and Simulations for Teaching Economics (New York: Joint Council on Economic Education, 1971), p. 8.

[2]Gerald Thorpe, "A Brief Survey of Research in Learning Through the Use of Simulation Games," High School Journal, LV

[3]Ibid., p. 466.

[4]Ibid., p. 467.

There is a lack of rigorous and advanced educational research studies pertaining to simulation games. The following studies, however, are of particular importance to this study.

Cherryholmes indicated that, although attitudinal changes do seem to occur as a result of simulation games, the extent of change is not clear.[1] At Lawrence, Kansas, Cherryholmes used simulation games in an attempt to show ". . .that the over-all structure of international relations was more likely to emerge and that a greater variety of events would be available for class discussions."[2] During a six week unit in international relations at a high school in Lawrence, Kansas, students acted as head of state for a number of hypothetical nations.

Cherryholmes analyzed student motivation and attitudes prior to and after the study unit. His findings indicated that students do acquire realistic attitudes toward international relations as a result of simulation. Changes in attitudes were more significant in cases where students had idealistic views of international relations. Cherryholmes concluded that:

> . . .Present research has not been able to establish the effect of simulation upon factual learning. . .however, simulation does arouse keen student interest and apparently tends to produce a pragmatic set of attitudes toward international relations.[3]

Andersen, Hermann, Robinson, and Snyder compared Inter-Nation

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[1]Cleo Cherryholmes, "Developments in Simulations of International Relations in High School Teaching," Phi Delta Kappan, XLVI (January, 1965), 227-31.

[2]Ibid., p. 230.

[3]Ibid., p. 232.

simulation with case studies in teaching three upper-class undergraduate courses at Northwestern University in 1962-63.[1] All students met together for two one-hour lectures each week; half then attended a simulation section and the other half attended a case study section. The assignments of students to sections were made during the first week of courses on the basis of grade point average, intelligence, and certain personality data.

The researchers found that the results of the two methods were not significantly different, and simulation was not uniformly superior to the case studies as a supplementary teaching activity. Nevertheless, in their conclusion, the authors did point to two important findings in their data:

> . . .behavioral measures of interest revealed simulation to be more involving and interesting than case studies, and simulation offers much more student-to-student feedback than do case discussion sections.[2]

Cordtz evaluated a simulation game used in a graduate course in American studies.[3] Based on a questionnaire issued by the instructor, he found that the students in the experimental class expressed higher preference for the course. The students felt that active involvement in simulation offered opportunities for applying and testing knowledge gained from previous reading and

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[1]Lee F. Andersen and others, "A Comparison of Simulation, Case Studies, and Problem Papers in Teaching Decision-Making" (Evanston, Illinois: Department of Political Science, Northwestern University, 1964). (Mimeographed.)

[2]Ibid.

[3]William A. Cordtz, "A Simulation Methodology of Instruction in a College Course of American Studies" (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, United States International University, 1969), pp. 205-208.

experience. Lloyd used this same form of data collection in his attempt to measure the effect of simulation on attitudes of college students.[1] His study produced no conclusive results.

Livingston conducted a simulation study to determine student attitudes toward the poor.[2] He developed a pre- and post-questionnaire to measure attitude change. More favorable attitudes toward the poor were expressed after simulation. There was also a significant increase in student interest toward the subject of poverty.

Livingston also conducted a series of experiments to test the hypothesis that simulation would motivate students to learn subject matter since learning by acting serves as an effective method of organizing content.[3] Within each class, students of the same sex were paired on reading ability; one member of each pair was then assigned at random to an experimental group.

The experimental group played the game Trade and Develop. The control group used the textbook method of instruction. Both the control and experimental groups answered brief questionnaires intended to measure the extent of motivation and the degree of information learned. The results showed no significant difference between the two groups, in either motivation or learning.

Livingston conducted two other studies to investigate the effects

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[1]James W. Lloyd, "Role Playing, Collective Bargaining and the Measurement of Attitude Change," The Journal of Economic Education, I (1970), 104-10.

[2]Samuel A. Livingston, Simulation Games and Attitude Changes: Attitudes Toward the Poor (Baltimore: The Center for the Study of Social Organization of Schools, John Hopkins University, 1970), pp. 45-47.

[3]Ibid.

of the game Democracy on the political attitudes of junior high school students.[1] In one study, 47 students were measured before and after the game. In a second study, 209 students were randomly assigned to an experimental group, employing simulation. In each study, the students played the game for 45-minute class periods. The games produced marked increases in the students' acceptance of the practice of "log-rolling" by congressmen and increased the students' feelings toward the efficacy of politics. The games did not increase student interest in politics or the legislative process.

Hart used a semantic differential attitude scale to test for differences in the polarization of attitudes of college students in political science after they had participated in a simulation (experimental) or a lecture (control) course in political science.[2] He found no significant difference between groups in degree of polarization of attitudes. Clark evaluated students' reactions to a simulated national political convention.[3] He reported positive reactions to the experience, but no statistical analysis was described. Wentworth used a semantic differential to measure the attitudes of students toward economics and the instructional process. No relationship was found between participation in the learning game,

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[1]Samuel A. Livingston, "Effects of a Legislative Simulation Game on Political Attitudes of Junior High School Students," Simulation and Games, III (1972), 41-51.

[2]William K. Hart, "An Analysis of the Usefulness of Simulation Games in Affecting Attitudinal Changes and Skill-Type Learning" (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, United States International University, 1969), pp. 180-84.

[3]Wentworth A. Clarke, "A Research Note on Simulation in the Social Studies," Simulation and Games, I (1970), 203-10.

Marketplace, and student ratings of economics, or the instructional process.[1]

Two studies used the "Moods Adjective Checklist" to measure attitudes and attitude change. Boags attempted to measure change in selected affective factors when students participated in a simulation game.[2] He placed graduate students, majoring in social work, into one of two settings, one competitive and the other cooperative. He found greater positive change in the affective orientation of students in the cooperative setting than the competitive one. Stahl tried to determine how the mode of presentation affected students' affective reactions to the resolution of simulated problems.[3] He found visual media more effective in influencing positive attitude change in students than simulation using little or no visual media.

Vogel found that 6th grade students participating in a game entitled City Council displayed significantly more positive attitudes about the role politicians play to effect change when compared to students who learned about city council work in a class using a conventional strategy of instruction.[4]

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[1]Donald R. Wentworth, "The Effectiveness of a Learning Game for Teaching Introductory Economics in Selected Two-Year Colleges" (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, University of Minnesota, 1972), pp. 80-83.

[2]Wilfred A. Boags, "A Comparison of Affective Reaction and Cognitive Learning of Participants in a Simulation Game Experience" (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, Syracuse University, 1970), pp. 31-35.

[3]Alfred F. Stahl, "Mode of Presentation and Subjects' Affective Reactions to the Resolution of Simulated Problems," Simulation and Games, I (1970), 263-79.

[4]Robert W. Vogel, "The Effect of a Simulation Game on the Attitudes of Political Efficacy of Sixth-Grade Students" (unpublished Master's thesis, University of Alberta, 1970), pp. 30-33.

De Koch investigated the impact of a simulation game dealing with racial problems.[1] He developed a test to measure attitude change. The results of his study suggested that there was a positive change toward tolerance and acceptance of differences on the part of students who participated in the game.

Corbin conducted a study evaluating a simulation game about Southeast Asia and found it had little effect on the attitudes of ninth grade students toward political, social, and economic problems.[2] A contrast to this study was one conducted by Boocock who tested the effects of a computer election game on student interest and learning.[3] She found that the exercise had no significant impact on the learning of factual materials by students. However, students' attitudes toward politicians and political roles in society were altered in a positive direction.

Baker studied the performance of students in a history course.[4] He found the experimental group participating in a simulation game performed better on content tests than did the control group, but his study appears to contain considerable bias. The researcher

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[1]Paul De Koch, "Simulation and Changes in Racial Attitudes," Social Education, XXXIII (April, 1969), 181-83.

[2]William S. Corbin, "The Effects of a Simulation Game about S. E. Asia on Political, Economic, and Social Attitudes of Ninth Grade Students" (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, The University of Rochester, 1971), pp. 162-64.

[3]Sarane S. Boocock, "The Effects of Games with Simulated Environments Upon Student Learning" (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, John Hopkins University, 1966), pp. 95-99.

[4]Eugene H. Baker, "A Comparative Study of Textbooks and Simulation Approaches in Teaching Junior High School American History" (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, Northwestern University, 1966), pp. 71-73.

taught both the control and experimental groups himself, developed the measuring instrument, and used an exercise which was not representative of the methodology usually employed in simulation playing. The students were involved in a long-term role-playing situation rather than an actual game or simulation.

Stadsklev ran an experiment similar in research design to the study conducted by Baker.[1] Stadsklev's analysis found no significant differences in cognitive gains between students in the control and treatment groups. Although this study was not an attempt to replicate the Baker study, it was similar in design, operation, implementation, and duration. The findings suggest the results of the Baker study be viewed with caution.

An imaginative and complicated study by Boocock utilized a research design with greater controls than the previously mentioned studies.[2] She used commercially available games, determined the reliability and validity of the measuring instruments, and provided a control group-experimental group comparison. Boocock collected data from experiments with seven different games using her own tests of student learning. The experiment was conducted during a 4-H convention using the students attending the convention as the population for study. Participant responses to pre- and post-tests of learning were compared, and Boocock concluded that the study

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[1]Ralph A. Stadsklev, "A Comparative Study of Simulation Gaming and Lecture-Discussion Method" (unpublished Master's thesis, University of Minnesota, 1969), pp. 43-44.

[2]Sarane S. Boocock, "The Effect of Games with Simulated Environments Upon Student Learning" (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, John Hopkins University, 1966), pp. 183-87.

provided empirical evidence for four general types of positive learning: (1) inducement to student motivation and learning; (2) vicarious experience; (3) intellectual learning; and (4) changes in student attitudes.

Several studies tried to be quite specific in testing student cognitive learning. Using multiple-choice tests fo content understanding, Garvey and Seiler compared the factual and conceptual knowledge high school students learned by playing Inter-Nation Simulation as opposed to conventional lecture discussion techniques.[1] Targ used elementary students with a modified version of Inter-Nation Simulation.[2] Both studies reported significant differences in student learning between the experimental and control groups.

Boags,[3] Hart,[4] and Newfield[5] ran studies at the collegiate level using simulation exercises in a variety of courses. Each study used non-standardized testing instruments to measure student learning.

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[1]Dale M. Garvey and William H. Seiler, "A Study of Effectiveness of Different Methods of Teaching International Relations to High School Students" (Final Report, Cooperative Research Project NO. S-270, Northwestern University, 1966), pp. 20-21. (Mimeographed.)

[2]Herbert R. Targ, "Impact of an Elementary School Inter-Nation Simulation on Developing Orientations to International Politics" (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, Northwestern University, 1967), pp. 61-63.

[3]William A. Boags, "A Comparison of Affective Reactions and Cognitive Learning of Participants in a Simulation Game Experience" (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, Syracuse University, 1970), p. 42.

[4]William K. Hart, "An Analysis of the Usefulness of Simulation Games in Affecting Attitudinal Changes and Skill-Type Learning" (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, United States International University, 1969), p. 65.

[5]Joseph Newfield, "An Application of Gaming to Curriculum Instruction" (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, University of New Mexico, 1969), pp. 70-71.

The results demonstrated no significant differences in student cognitive performance, but there was an increase in interest.

Chartier used the game Generation Gap with under-graduate students in an introductory speech class to investigate the cognitive impact of combining a simulation game with what the author described as "instrumented discussion."[1] He found no differences between the level of cognitive learning in the experimental and control groups.

Thompson conducted a study on the effect of computer gaming on student performance in junior college economics courses.[2] He found no significant results on student cognitive performance.

Emery and Enger found that a computer game used to help teach introductory economics was significantly related to student achievement and interests.[3] The results indicated an improvement in student cognitive performance as well as increased student interest in the course.

The efficiency of using a computer game to teach was also investigated by Wing.[4] Although he found that using computer gaming techniques did not increase the cognitive learning of sixth grade students, he did find that students in the experimental group (using the

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[1]Mark R. Chartier, "Learning Effect: An Instrumental Discussion," Simulation and Games, III (September, 1972), 203-10.

[2]Frank A. Thompson, "Gaming via Computer Simulation Techniques for Junior College Economic Education" (Riverside, California: Final Report N.D.E.A. Title III-B, Project NO. 212-B-8060 J, Riverside City College), pp. 38-39. (Mimeographed.)

[3]Edward D. Emery and Thomas P. Enger, "Computer Gaming and Learning in an Introductory Economics Course," Journal of Economic Education, III (April, 1972), 77-85.

[4]Robert L. Wing, "Two Computer-based Economics Games for Sixth Graders," The American Behavioral Scientist, X (January, 1966), 31-33.

computer) attained approximately the same amount of learning in half the time needed to teach that information by conventional classroom instruction.

Anderson conducted a study comparing the performance of a high school class in consumer economics taught with simulation with that of another class using lecture-discussion teaching techniques.[1] He found no significant differences in knowledge between the two groups.

From the studies cited, it seems fair to assume that students participating in a simulation game enjoyed such exercises more than conventional classroom activities. The reported studies did not sustain any other advantage for simulation games over alternative teaching techniques or media.

## SUMMARY

The research reviewed in this chapter first traced the evolution of simulation games. Abt, a pioneer in the field of simulation, distinguished three types of simulation games as a strategy for instruction: showdown, strategy, and combination. It was shown that simulation games could take any of these forms.

Boocock and Schild suggested that simulation games have gone through three distinct phases of development. During the first phase (1959 to 1963), social scientists discovered simulation games as an innovative experience for the classroom. The second phase ran from 1963 to 1965, and the results obtained from controlled experiments

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[1]Charles R. Anderson, "The Effectiveness of a Simulation Learning Game in Teaching Consumer Credit to Senior High School Students in Comparison to a Conventional Approach to Instruction" (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, University of Maryland, 1969), p. 55.

proved inconclusive. The potential for using simulation games in teaching the social studies was greatly realized during the third and present phase of development.

The research cited supports the contention that the attitudes of students toward social studies was often not favorable. Research findings indicated that secondary school students do not often rank social studies courses among their most favorite. Several studies suggested that student complaints concerning social studies stem not from the content of the course but from the ways in which the material is organized and presented. While no conclusive evidence was offered, the studies cited seemed to suggest that more favorable attitudes might be fostered by employing teaching strategies offering a greater variety of options.

The research in this section also indicated that a variety of instruments might appropriately be used in measuring student attitudes.

A review of studies pertaining to the use of simulation games in the classroom suggested that simulation games have questionable impact on student cognitive learning when compared with other teaching techniques. Simulation games seem to have had their greatest impact in the area of affective learning. Most researchers have reported positive student response after participating in simulation games.

The research on simulation as a teaching strategy appears promising, but most of the studies cannot be generalized beyond the actual situations investigated. In addition, most of the simulation research cited was based on very short experimental treatment, ranging from two days to as little as several hours. The need appears great to obtain substantially more data related to the effects of simulation as a teaching technique.

## Chapter III

## METHOD OF THE STUDY

This chapter reviews the purposes of a program designed to promote the teaching of social studies and discusses the population selected, the collection of the data, and the evaluation of the data.

## PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purposes of this study are to describe the design and implementation of a plan to improve social studies instruction using simulation games and to determine whether simulation games can bring about greater student interest and motivation for secondary students of varying abilities.

## DESCRIPTION OF THE POPULATION

In September of 1973, one hundred students representing Alexander Hamilton High School's entire eleventh grade class participated in a project based on the use of selected simulation games as a method for studying required topics in American History. Specifically, five topics dealing with American government and politics were included. Five simulation games were used, each related to the five topics. The study took place during a twenty week period from September, 1973, through January, 1974. The one hundred students were divided into five classes ranging in size from sixteen to twenty-five. The population consisted of fifty-seven boys and forty-three girls.

## DATA COLLECTION

Data were sought from a number of sources: teachers, students, parents, and school records.

During 1972, the year the project group was in the tenth grade, and during the project year itself, 1973, information was collected about the students enrolled in social studies classes. A series of classroom observations were made by the investigator to discover the extent of participation exhibited by the students. In addition, students and teachers were asked to submit reports and answer questionnaires which referred to such items as course content, methodology, assignments, attitudes, interests, and grades. Finally, selected students were interviewed personally by the investigator, as was each of the social studies teachers.

### Classroom Observations

Classroom observations made during the latter half of the students' tenth year of social studies were intended to glean information about the project students' interests, attitudes, and degrees of active participation in classrooms using "traditional type" methodology.

Forty-five observations were scheduled and completed. Each of the five classes was observed nine times for periods lasting a minimum of twenty minutes. A minimum of 120 minutes of observation is suggested by Armstrong as appropriate for determining teaching-learning patterns.[1]

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[1]Jenny R. Armstrong and others, "Consistency of Teacher Communication: A Sampling Problem in Interaction Analysis" (paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago, Illinois, February, 1966).

For purposes of this study, selected categories were used for recording each observation. (Appendix A.)

> The method for systematic observation of students' reactions and attitudes toward a method of instruction are still under investigation, and the prescribed units for observation are often left fairly open.[1]

Anecdotal notes were made of the activities and associated conditions observed. The latter were accounts of situations describing specific incidents witnessed by the observer.[2]

In order to describe the classroom atmosphere in which learning took place, the focus was on two basic elements noted by Whyte: "interaction" and "activities."[3] The first, "interaction," involved the degree of verbal exchange between students and teachers. The second element, "activities," involved noting the type of classroom activities in which students were engaged, classroom arrangements, and the use of instructional materials and teaching techniques.

Similar classroom observations took place during the twenty week period students were engaged in simulation activities.

Each time the students were involved in a simulated learning activity, an observation was made by the investigator or a social studies staff member. A standard form was used to record the obser-

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[1]Edmund J. Amidon and Ned A. Flanders, The Role of the Teacher in the Classroom: A Manual for Understanding and Improving Teacher Classroom Behavior (Minneapolis: Association for Productive Teaching, 1967), p. 33.

[2]Millie Almy, Ways of Studying Children (New York: Teachers College Press, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1959), p. 51.

[3]William Foote Whyte, Man and Organization: Three Problems in Human Relations in Industry (Homewood, Ill.: Richard D. Irwin, 1959), p. 56.

vations. (Appendix B.) A total of three hundred and two observations, each lasting at least twenty minutes, was completed in the five classes involved in the study.

Interview with Teachers

Each of the three teachers who had worked with the participating students during their tenth year was interviewed with questions designed to obtain information concerning student attitudes, degrees of success, types of teaching techniques, and instructional materials used to accomplish course objectives. (Appendix C.)

It has been suggested that open-ended questions should be followed by more pointed questions or probes.[1] This procedure was attempted by asking such questions as "Do most of your students like social studies?" and "What evidence can you give to substantiate your answer?" Answers to more probing type questions followed, such as "If you were a member of a committee trying to improve the teaching of social studies, what changes, if any, would you recommend?" and "Can you give reasons why several of your students are either chronically late to class or cut class?" Whyte stated that open-ended questions should be used in the beginning stages of an interview; he pointed out that there can be various kinds of evaluative data drawn from an interview, beyond information supplied by stated answers to questions. These might include an informant's current emotional state, his values, his attitudes, and his opinions or cognitive formulation of ideas on

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[1]Claire Selltiz and others, Research Methods in Social Relations (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1959), p. 403.

a subject.[1]

Teachers involved in the project were interviewed during and after the twenty week project. The teachers were asked to describe their efforts and perceptions in behalf of the participating students. (Appendix D.)

Student Questionnaire

A Social Studies Student Questionnaire was administered to the participating students during their tenth year. Students who were absent had an opportunity to complete the questionnaire upon their return to school.

The questionnaire asked ten questions. (Appendix E.) The instrument was constructed by the researcher to obtain additional information prior to the time when simulation games were to be introduced. The nature of the questions gave the students an opportunity to express in a variety of ways their feelings towards social studies courses and their willingness to participate in class activities.

Social Studies Attitude Survey

A Social Studies Attitude Survey was administered to the project group upon entering the eleventh grade in September, 1973, and again in February, 1974, after completing twenty weeks of study using simulation games. The survey consisted of forty-one questions. Most of the questions were taken from Remmer's test, "Attitude Toward

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[1]William Foote Whyte, "Interviewing in Field Research," Human Organization Research, eds. R. N. Adams and J. J. Preiss (Homestead, Ill.: The Dorsey Press, 1960), p. 355.

Any Subject."[1] Several questions were modified and additional ones constructed by the writer. (Appendix F.) The survey was intended to ascertain student feelings and attitudes toward the study of social studies before and after exposure to simulation games.

The social studies teachers with whom students had last been associated completed forms designed to yield descriptive information concerning each student.

Student Interviews and Reactions

In efforts to encourage students to evaluate their own feelings and experiences as a result of exposure to simulation, twenty-five students were interviewed personally after the project was completed. (Appendix G.) The remaining students wrote answers to questions included in a Social Studies Questionnaire. (Appendix H.)

Parents' Reactions

At the conclusion of the twenty week project, the parents of the students were sent a questionnaire. The questions sought to elicit their reactions to the project. (Appendix I.)

## EVALUATION AND USE OF DATA

The data were organized so as to evaluate differences in attitude of students toward social studies using a new type of methodology compared with a more traditional type.

Specifically, the study attempted to determine whether simulation

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[1] E. B. Silance and H. H. Remmers, "An Experimental Generalized Master Scale: A Scale to Measure Attitude Toward Any School Subject," Purdue University Studies in Higher Education, XVI (Lafayette, Indiana: Purdue University Press, 1934), pp. 84-88.

games (1) increased student interest in and improved attitudes toward the study of social studies, (2) resulted in improved social studies grades, (3) realized specific course objectives more fully, and (4) promoted more realistic teaching techniques, student-teacher relations, and student participation.

To determine whether activities associated with simulated learning activities increased student interest and improved attitudes toward the study of social studies, responses to a Social Studies Attitude Pre and Post Survey were compared. Responses to interviews and written questions by the participating students, tenth grade teachers, and project teachers were also considered.

Further clarification of attitudinal change was ascertained from the classroom observations completed during the students' tenth and eleventh years of social studies.

The questionnaires completed by the teachers, students, and parents assisted the investigator in offering impressions toward learning games as a vehicle for improving student interest and skills in the social studies.

Mid-year and final social studies grades acquired in grades nine and ten by the participating students were gathered. A comparison was then made of gains in achievement during the project year with gains in achievement in previous years in order to ascertain if simulation games resulted in improved social studies grades.

Data obtained from project teachers and participating students was analyzed to determine whether established course objectives were more fully realized through simulation games than methodology used in prior years.

Information concerning teaching techniques, student-teacher relations, and student participation was included for descriptive purposes.

## CHAPTER ORGANIZATION: CHAPTERS IV-VI

Chapter IV describes the design and implementation of the instructional plan to improve social studies instruction and student performance. Chapter V presents and discusses the findings of the study. Summary, conclusions, and implications of the study are presented in Chapter VI.

## Chapter IV

## SIMULATION GAMES FOR TEACHING ELEVENTH GRADE SOCIAL STUDIES: ORGANIZATION AND METHODS OF INSTRUCTION

This chapter describes the setting, design, development, implementation, and teacher preparation involved in a twenty week social studies project under which simulation games were used as a primary instructional tool. General information about the students is presented as well as a description of the games used during the project.

### THE SETTING

The teaching project was performed in a suburban high school with one hundred students representing five grade eleven classes enrolled in the study of American History. No control group was used other than the past records of the project group and teacher experiences with the same course not using simulation games.

Elmsford, New York, the home of the subject school district, lies about twenty miles north of the New York City line in central Westchester County. It is residential in nature. The district's population is about evenly divided between professional men and women who commute to the city, and residents employed in local factories, the building trades, and business concerns. The socio-economic status of the district's population of eight thousand ranges across the entire middle class. Average education of the community's adult

population (according to the 1970 Census Report of the United States Bureau of the Census) equals less than one year of college.

The school system is composed of two elementary schools and one junior-senior high school, with an enrollment of approximately one thousand six hundred. The junior-senior high school, grades seven through twelve, houses 750 students.

## PROJECT STUDENTS AND CLASS ORGANIZATION

The entire eleventh grade population of Alexander Hamilton High School was used as the subject for this study. The study of social studies in the eleventh year is a required course. Since social studies is not a twelfth year requirement, generally not more than 25 percent of the students select social studies as a senior elective. (One expected outcome for using simulation games was to increase student interest sufficiently to enlarge the number of students who would select social studies electives.)

Students were assigned to five classes in numbers ranging from sixteen to twenty-five. As was the school's custom, one of the five classes was an honors class where selection was based on past academic performances; the other four classes were formed heterogeneously. The mean intelligence quotient of the one hundred students (Lorge-Thorndike) was 112. Analysis of differences between classes was not a factor for consideration, as the study principally involved contrasting individual student attitudes and performance prior to and subsequent to the project.

The classrooms housing the project students were located on the same floor. Two of the five classes were scheduled the first

period while the other three met during the third period. Consequently, many of the classes during the twenty weeks were held jointly in one of the classrooms or in a large instructional area. There was constant exchange of students between rooms during the playing of several games.

Since all the classrooms contained movable desks, there was no problem in arranging space suitable for playing each game. Sufficient project materials were available either in each classroom or in the library which was located on the same floor as the project classrooms.

## PROJECT TEACHERS

Each of the project teachers possessed a permanent social studies teaching certificate from the state of New York, with experience ranging three to seventeen years. Two of the four teachers held masters degrees in education. The writer, Chairman of the Social Studies Department, taught two of the five classes involved; three other teachers taught the remaining classes. Two student teachers were available for support functions.

### Preparation of Teachers for the Project

The investigator and his associates familiarized themselves with simulation-game techniques prior to engaging in the project. They visited demonstration-classroom projects, interviewed teachers and students involved in game methodology, attended workshops and seminars, and studied related literature.

Months before the project began, the four teachers conferred regularly to select simulation games applicable to the intent of the project. Initial decisions regarding teaching methodology, use of materials, and time requirements were made during those months set aside

for planning.

Much attention was given to the problem of making the games integral to the eleventh grade curriculum. Evaluation procedures were discussed as they pertained to the project's desired outcomes. Major concern was placed on ways in which student performance and attitudes toward the social studies might be improved.

The teachers first played several of the games themselves, for the experience and insight this might provide. Teacher understanding of simulation games and available teaching options in their use was essential to classroom organization.

The instructor's prime responsibility in advancing simulation game instruction occurred during the debriefing or evaluation phase of the game. The need for posing key questions and expositions was necessary if students were to gain experience in extrapolating concepts, analogizing, and generalizing from the play. Questions evolved as the game experience progressed. These questions provided a means for students to find parallels between the games and historical events. Again, opportunities for the classes to draw lessons from the games took place during the debriefing sessions when the logic of "game play" was justified.

Staff Meetings

Staff meetings were held at least once a week during the twenty week project. Generally considered were teaching techniques and problems encountered by students as they became involved in working with simulation games.

Specifically considered were aspects of the following categories: game administration, class discussion, options for supplementary activ-

ities, and student evaluation.

The staff meetings, for example, provided insights that led to more efficient kinds of student groupings. More able students worked together at times; on other occasions more able students were grouped with slower students. These varying patterns appeared to have an effect in promoting competition among students. In addition, slower students seemed less reluctant to participate in class discussions. Students with particular insights were eager to share their findings with the entire group. Discussions were maintained at a lively pace, therefore, and relevant points were made by a majority of students.

Supplementary activities were encouraged in order to fill information gaps, add detail, present alternative viewpoints, and allow students opportunities to test the assumptions of the games with other forms of materials (e.g., books, filmstrips, tapes). The use of original source materials was encouraged. It was found that several of the games became more effective when supported with original political documents, letters, and publications.

## DISCUSSION OF THE PROJECT

The project involved the use of simulation games in dealing with five topics in American government and politics. The topics centered around those suggested in the New York State syllabus and those included in the locally prepared eleventh grade social studies curriculum. Within the regular course of study then, the intent was to concentrate on modifying methodology by (1) emphasizing the teaching of concepts in addition to accumulating data, (2) incorporating basic concepts drawn from the disciplines of history and the social sciences,

(3) stressing specific skills and research techniques, (4) providing learning activities aimed at conceptualization through techniques of inquiry and discovery, and (5) promoting the use of multi-media resources.

The grading system employed during the project was identical to the system used in prior years. The students received report cards every ten weeks and supplementary reports after the fifth and fifteenth week of the semester. The grades and reports were based on tests, quizzes, assignments, and class participation.

Description and Use of Simulation Games

A series of simulation games provided actual events in history which, when reenacted, asked students how they would have resolved selected issues under consideration had they been involved in the decision making process during a particular time in history.

The several simulation games used in this study were felt to offer desired instructional outcomes. Hypothetical environments were provided which reflected real social problems and issues. In playing the games, the students assumed chosen roles and demonstrated these role-playing positions through game activities which (according to the rules) were either rigidly defined or completely open. Desire to achieve stated goals were intended to encourage individual and team competition.

Student orientation to the use of simulation games. Prior to the start of the project, the five classes involved in the project were brought together for a period of three days.

Simulation games were described and necessary terms were reviewed. Several students were trained as "class leaders;" other

students were encouraged to seek their assistance during game playing time when rules needed to be interpreted or a game mediator was needed to settle a dispute.

Preparation for play. All necessary materials were prepared in advance. Special arrangements were made with the librarian to place required resource materials in the classrooms or in a specified area of the library. The required materials included government publications, related magazine articles, textbooks, filmstrips, and selected books.

The project teachers followed the designer's suggestions carefully as each game was played. They agreed with Mc Kenney and Dill[1] that putting groups together simply because students may have worked together before or because they were homogeneous in ability did not enhance the opportunities for learning. "For maximum student satisfaction and performance, competing teams should not reflect obvious differences in potential."[2] As such, the size and makeup of student groupings varied.

Except for the class leaders' roles, students were allowed to choose their own roles and select their own teammates.[3] Slower students generally assumed a single role, while higher ability students played several roles during each game. This procedure had the added

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[1]James L. Mc Kenney and William R. Dill, "The Effects of Team Assignments and Faculty Boards on Student Attitudes and Learning," Simulation Games in Learning, eds. Sarane S. Boocock and E. O. Schild (Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications, 1968), p. 230.

[2]Ibid.

[3]Clarice S. Stoll, "Player Characteristics and Strategy in a Parent-Child Simulation Game" (Baltimore: Report No. 23 of the Center for the Study of Social Organization of Schools, The John Hopkins University, 1963), p. 7. (mimeographed.)

advantage of accommodating more players during a particular game.

Introduction of the simulation games. Although simulation games may be used in a variety of ways, for purposes of this project they were used primarily as developmental activities, advancing the understanding of problems through practical application of ideas.

The time needed to introduce each game varied (twenty-five minutes for Democracy, sixty minutes for Inter-Nation Simulation). Attempts were made for the students to understand clearly the purposes of each particular game and become familiar with basic game rules.

Play of the games. The project teachers attempted to ensure the smooth functioning of each simulation. They encouraged the active participation of all players by questioning the students about their decisions and discussing their strategies. In effect, simulation games became "a social studies analogue for the physical science laboratory, providing opportunities for experimentation with various social theories."[1] For this reason, the project teachers displayed a neutral attitude toward all simulation game strategies. Each staff member served as a catalyst--promoting discussions, urging students to respond according to known facts and logic.

After two or three periods of simulated learning, classes were brought together for discussion and review. Research suggests that students learn more if play is stopped after several rounds in order to discuss the various outcomes of the game.[2] It has been suggested that

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[1]James S. Coleman, "Games as Vehicles for Social Theory," American Behavioral Scientist, LXX (July-August, 1969), 117-18.

[2]Statement by R. Garry Shirts, Director of Smile II, personal telephone interview, La Jolla, California, January 22, 1974.

each simulation game be played at least two times to allow players to try out alternate strategies and to reinforce the concepts learned from the first play or after class discussion. This procedure was followed while working with three of the five simulation games (1787, Democracy, and Hat In The Ring).

Clark Abt, a simulation game designer, suggested that the reality of simulation games raises the possibility of students "learning spurious analogies and over-rating the predictability of events."[1] To avoid this possibility, post-game discussions were held lasting three to five periods. These provided important opportunities for students to compare real world events with simulated events. The discussions also served to reinforce game concepts, promote general principles of logic, and provide practice in skills of verbalization. A standard form was used to record questions and responses. (See Post-Game Discussion Record Sheet, Appendix J.)

The post-game discussion also presented important opportunities for examining issues related to values or social problems. Under normal class conditions, discussions involving values forced students to refer many times to personal situations based more on emotion than fact. Often students lacked the necessary experience to discuss topics meaningfully, and the classes degenerated into "free-for-all" exchanges of personal feelings. Games provided a forum for developing value concepts since "real issues" were considered and solutions to problems had to be based on fact and reason.

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[1]Clark C. Abt, "Games for Learning," Simulation Games in Learning, eds. Sarane Boocock and E O. Schild (Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publication Company, 1968), pp. 83-84.

A variety of topic activities--research assignments, lectures, and audio-visual presentations--preceded the play and discussion of each game. These activities provided the students with background information needed to play and understand more effectively each simulation game. Abt noted that the very attractiveness of games to students could be dangerous if other activities became boring or the technique of simulation is over used. "Simulation games," he said, "should be recognized as only an enhancing complement of conventional study methods."[1]

Cleo Cherryholmes suggested that one type of follow-up activity could allow students to validate the theory embedded in a simulation by a variety of comparisons with the real-life referent system.[2] For example, while playing one game, Democracy, students polled their parents to determine reasons for voting for or against an incumbent; they then compared their findings with those statistics gathered from a national poll.

After completing each simulation game, except for the last one, a quiz was given. When all five topics had been covered, the students took a test covering the five topics. The quizzes and test were similar to the ones normally given to students completing these topics.

Besides being tested, each student was expected to write a brief report at the end of each game explaining his actions taken

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[1]Clark C. Abt, "Games for Learning," Simulation Games in Learning, eds. Sarane Boocock and E. O. Schild (Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publication Company, 1968), pp. 83-84.

[2]Cleo Cherryholmes, "Some Current Research on Effectiveness of Educational Simulation: Implications for Alternative Strategies," American Behavioral Scientist, IV (October, 1966), 8.

during the game: his votes, his efforts to gain support for his point of view, his "politicking" and compromising to gain an end. They were checked for adequacy of information, logical thinking, and ability to plan strategies.

Modifying simulation games. When necessary, simulation games were modified to match the abilities of the players or the objectives of the curriculum. It was possible to vary games so that the content was better suited to the course objectives. In the game, Democracy, urban and state-wide issues were substituted for the national issues outlined in the game. The teachers were also able to build additional learning experiences into the basic game. For example, in the game, 1787, students had to plan additional strategies for amending and ratifying the constitution they had written.

Description of games. The students were involved in five simulation games, varying in playing time from six periods (Hat-in-the-Ring) to twenty-five periods (1787). Counting the preparation, debriefing, and testing time, the students were involved in some aspect of simulated learning during each of the twenty weeks of the project. The games were (1) 1787, (2) Democracy, (3) Inter-Nation Simulation, (4) Hat-in-the-Ring, and (5) The Union Divides.

In 1787, students assumed roles as delegates to a mock Constitutional Convention. Each delegate set forth beliefs which might have been considered politically viable during the conflicting early days of the United States. They proposed and voted on alternate ways of constructing a new federal government and finally voted on ratification of their document as a whole. As a post game activity,

the class document was compared with the actual Constitution.

Democracy consists of a set of eight games ranging in difficulty from simple to complex decision-making. Participants played legislators in Game 1 and citizens in Game 2. Game 3 was intended to link the roles of legislators and citizens by exemplifying the relationship between the roles in a representative democracy. The advanced games were variations of Game 1 and highlighted the complex principles of political decision--making.

The Inter-Nation Simulation (INS) constructs major features of the international political system. Five nations are "created" with economic and political characteristics clearly identified.

This simulation stresses several related concepts for participant consideration: sovereignty, international law, balance of power, alliances, causes of war, force strategies, propaganda, collective security, disarmament, national interest, diplomacy, developing nations, neutrality nonalignment, and nationalism. Assuming roles of public officials, students analyzed changing world situations and implemented strategies to increase their nation's capability to produce goods and services and strengthen its position in relation to other nations or alliances. Participants had specific responsibilities as heads of State, foreign policy advisor, official domestic advisors, foreign affairs diplomats, and domestic opposition leaders. During the game, crisis situations developed gradually from the differing characteristics of each nation and the behavior of the student decision-makers.

Hat-in-the-Ring is designed to acquaint students with all aspects of the presidential nomination process, from primary elections through national conventions.

Seeking the nomination for President of the United States involved learning about various political realities. These realities included acquiring knowledge about the relationship between money spent and support gained, the relative advantage of seeking delegates from a few large states or from many small states, the difference in cost and energy in gaining votes in a primary versus a non-primary state, and the ways in which "political deals" might be made during a convention.

The Union Divides intends to give students opportunities to explore conflicts faced by the United States between 1850 and 1870. Such issues as expansion versus containment of slavery in the territories, federalism versus state rights, agriculture versus industry, and property rights versus human rights are considered. Students were asked to play roles depicting state governors faced with problems associated with sectional division and civil war. The game investigated how northern and southern extremists contributed both to sectionalism and the final outbreak of the Civil War.

Each game used in the project contained a manual listing specific information such as playing data, materials supplied, and roles to be played by the students. (Appendix K.)

Course Topics and Desired Outcomes

The five simulation games related specifically to the course topics in the outline below. In addition, they were used as instruments to assist students in achieving the desired outcomes listed for the course.

I. The Organization of Government
   A. Man's Need for Govermnent
   B. Types of Governments
   C. Influential Forces Outside the Formal Structure of Government

II. The Organization of the American Government
   A. Political Power under the Constitution
   B. The Role of Congress in the Use of Political Powers
   C. Individual Rights and Protection against the Misuse of Political Powers
   D. The Role of the Judiciary in a Democratic Government

III. The American Presidency
   A. Definition of Presidential Powers
   B. Limitations of Presidential Authority

IV. The Influence of the Individual and Groups on Political Power in the United States
   A. Methods Utilized by Individuals and Groups to Influence the Use of Political Powers in the United States
   B. The Role of Political Parties in the American Political System

V. Historical Events which Strengthened American Democracy
   A. The American Revolution's Contribution to the Cause of Democracy
   B. The Advancement of Democracy during the Eras of Washington, Jefferson, and Jackson
   C. The Effects of the Civil War and Reconstruction toward Strengthening American Democracy

The games were used in assisting students to:

1. know why men need some form of government and how governments can insure justice and order,

2. evaluate the mechanisms through which political branches in the United States function,

3. comprehend the United States Constitution and the ways laws of the United States can be changed,

4. understand the kinds of conflicts which may arise between what citizens call "rights" and governments call "security measures,"

5. know that rights of citizens do not exclude responsibilities of citizens,

6. analyze the major role of the United States Congress as a law making body,

7. understand how leaders of the economic and social forces in

a society can exert important political influence,

8. explain how a President can serve as both the leader of his country and the head of his party,

9. have a working knowledge of presidential powers and their relationship to legislative and judicial functions,

10. know why the powers of the Presidency have increased considerably in recent years in both domestic and foreign affairs,

11. comprehend the citizen's role in influencing government policy,

12. realize how pressure groups can influence government policy,

13. understand the process by which primary elections are held and party delegates are selected,

14. know what changes in the democratic process occurred after the Civil War,

15. describe how various American Presidents influenced the growth of democracy,

16. explain how a nation's unity and stability can be disrupted to the point of civil war,

17. compare the roles of Presidents during periods of crisis, and

18. describe the struggle of minority groups to gain equal rights under the law.

Instructional Strategies

It should be noted, again, that the games were not intended to be the sole method or technique utilized to develop the course objectives. Additional methods, techniques, and instructional materials were employed. These included lectures, discussions, audio-visual presentations, debates,

individual and committee reports, and book reviews.

In order to develop the course objectives, the instructional strategies were varied according to considered readiness levels of the project students and also the designated priorities established for appropriate learning experiences. All classroom activities were designed to facilitate pupil involvement and provide opportunities for pupils to make positive gains in their school work.

Much emphasis was placed on the mastery of fundamental skills. Through directed practice with individual students, the teachers guided them in the kinds of experiences they would need in order to develop and extend basic skills and understandings. Drill work was presented systematically. Repetitive exercises attempted to reinforce and maintain learning. This method was used on a daily basis, although the time spent on practice exercises varied for different students.

Guiding pupils in the techniques of problem solving was an additional instructional approach employed by the project staff. Students were shown how to apply fundamental skills to problems which required them to make predictions, assumptions, and decisions. The opportunity to solve problems was offered to every student, either by giving him information and then posing questions which required the use of that information, or providing activities which enabled pupils to test relationships between acquired skills and their application to actual problems.

Field trips were used sparingly as a device to encourage students to become involved in an activity with greater interest and purpose. Trips included visits to Town Hall, Greenburgh, New York, the State Capitol in Albany, and individual governmental agencies.

The experiences of the students were used to stimulate recall, promote observation and listening techniques, stimulate discussion, and provide background material for writing purposes.

Homework was considered an important instructional opportunity for students to "show" the progress they were making. Outside assignments were treated as an extension of the school day. They were intended to reinforce classroom learning and develop meaningful work-study habits.

For some pupils, assignments were related extensively to fundamental skills. For all, creative activities were planned that were closely linked with appropriate project topics.

Students were urged repeatedly to work independently at home and not seek outside assistance. The project teachers were committed to giving assignments that were definite in purpose and thoroughly understood by the students. They adhered to a strict policy which permitted students to initiate their assigned work in school. By checking samples of the students' work, portions of assignments were reused or omitted, when necessary, in an attempt to keep assignments reasonable, realistic, and personalized, while meeting the needs of individual students. During the project, then, simulation games were used to reinforce instruction from the methods, techniques, and instructional materials employed. A detailed listing of actual topics taught including choice of activities and suggested materials follows.

| ACTIVITIES | MATERIALS |
|---|---|
| **I. TOPIC: THE ORGANIZATION OF GOVERNMENT** | |
| **A. Initiatory** | |
| 1. Survey: Social Studies Attitude Survey (Pre-Test) | Survey constructed by researcher (Appendix F). |
| 2. Class discussion and lecture<br>a. The need for government<br>b. Types of government<br>c. Forces capable of influencing governmental formation<br>d. Appropriate photographs and news releases depicting use of governmental powers | Textbook: Smith, Mary Magruder. American Government. Rockleigh, New Jersey: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1973.<br><br>Photographs:<br>1. President Kennedy Signing the Nuclear Ban Treaty, New York Times, Monday, September 8, 1963.<br>2. President Johnson Signing the Civil Rights Bill of 1964, New York Times, Wednesday, April 10, 1964.<br>3. President Nixon's Visit to China, New York Times, Wednesday, February 13, 1972. |
| 3. Media Presentation (Use of media exemplifying range of governmental powers) | News Releases:<br>1. Removal of some restrictions on travel to Communist China, New York Times, Saturday, May 20, 1969.<br>2. Blockade of North Vietnam, New York Times, Tuesday, May 12, 1972. |
| **B. Developmental** | |
| 1. A simulation game, 1787 (Repeated in order to reinforce concepts, etc.) | Simulation Game: Rothschild, Eric and Werner Feig. 1787. Hartsdale, N.Y.: Olcott Forward, Inc., 1970. |
| 2. Written work (Reports on 1787) Individual student reactions to votes cast; support of actions taken. | 1787 Work forms |

| ACTIVITIES | MATERIALS |
|---|---|
| 3. Class discussion<br>a. Gain of political power.<br>b. Use of political power. | Textbooks:<br>1. Current, Richard H., Alexander DeConde, and Harris F. Dante. United States History. Oakland, New Jersey: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1972. (Unit II).<br>2. Smith, Mary Magruder. American Government. Rockleigh, New Jersey: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1973. (Chapter 2).<br>3. Gordon, Irving F. American History Review Text. New York: Amsco School Publications, Inc., 1972. (Unit 1).<br>4. Williams, Irving S. Government. New York: W. H. Sadlier, Inc., 1970. (Chapter 1).<br>5. Gordon, Irving F. American History Review Text. New York: Amsco School Publications, Inc., 1972. (Unit 1, Part 5). |
| 4. Class debate<br>Suggested problem:<br>The Articles of Confederation were not strong enough to solve the nation's problems. | |
| 5. Group work: Constitutional Convention<br>a. Membership<br>b. Problems<br>c. Compromises<br>d. Points of agreement<br>Points of Reference:<br>(1) Mount Vernon Conference<br>(2) Annapolis Conference | |
| C. Culminating<br>1. Written work:<br>Position papers dealing with:<br>a. Formation of legislature<br>b. Powers of state governments<br>c. Process of presidential elections<br>d. Selection of court judges | 1787 game experiences and outside readings relating to the formation of the United States Government under the Constitution. |
| 2. Class analysis (1787 debriefing period)<br>a. Acts passed by Constitutional Convention<br>b. Conclusions drawn from game playing | Notes, reports, and game experience of participating students. |
| 3. Examination relating to specific objectives of the topic. | Use of related material collected from class notes, readings, and assignments. |

| ACTIVITIES | MATERIALS |
| --- | --- |
| II. TOPIC: THE ORGANIZATION OF THE AMERICAN GOVERNMENT | Textbooks:<br>1. Lieberman, Jethro. Understanding Our Constitution. New York: Fawcett, 1970. (Chapters 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6.)<br><br>2. Harvard, William C. Government and Politics of the U.S. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1971. (Chapters 4 and 5.) |
| A. Initiatory<br>1. Written work<br>a. Constitutional provisions affecting balance of political powers<br>b. The exercise of political powers by Congress<br>c. Protection of the individual citizen against misuse of political powers<br>d. Limitation of individual rights and liberties | |
| 2. Motion picture viewing - Check:<br>a. Origin of democracy<br>b. Important principles of democracy<br>c. Elements needed to make democracy work | "Defining Democracy." 27 minutes, sound, 1971. Learning Resource Service, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, Ill. |
| 3. A filmstrip showing - Check:<br>a. Direct and indirect democracy<br>b. Role of the people in a democracy<br>c. Advantages and disadvantages of American democracy<br>d. Checks and balances of the American government | "Democracy: What You Should Know About It and Why" (set of 6). 60 minutes, sound, 1968. Encyclopedia Brittanica, Chicago, Ill. |
| 4. Lecture: The Organization of the American Government Include:<br>a. Division of power<br>b. Separation of power<br>c. "Unwritten Constitution"<br>d. Undemocratic features in the original Constitution | Filmstrips: "Federal System" (Parts I and II). 24 minutes, sound. Encyclopedia Brittanica, Chicago, Ill. |

| ACTIVITIES | MATERIALS |
|---|---|
| 5. Class discussion: The Congressional "Committee System"<br>a. The making of a law<br>b. Merits and criticisms of the committee system<br>c. Evaluation of lawmaking procedures | Audio Visual Kit: 1 "U. S. Government in Action: The House of Representatives," 30 minutes, sound, 1972. Guidance Associates, 23 Washington Avenue, Pleasantville, New York. |
| B. Developmental | |
| 1. A simulation game, Democracy (repeated in order to reinforce concepts, etc.) | Simulation Game: Coleman, James S. Democracy. New York: Western Publishing Co., Inc., 1969. |
| 2. Written work (Reports on Democracy)<br>a. Explanation of actions taken<br>b. Votes cast<br>c. Efforts made to gain support<br>d. Compromises made as representatives | Democracy work forms. |
| 3. Group presentations--Check:<br>a. Major roles of the U.S. Congress as a law making body<br>b. Ways by which laws can be changed<br>c. Election strategies | Textbook: Harvard, William C. Government and Politics of the U.S. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1971. (Chapters 4 and 5). (Daily newspapers and weekly news magazines very helpful.) |
| 4. Comparison of the voting patterns of selected Congresspersons | Magazine: Congressional Digest. Washington, D.C.: Congressional Digest Corporation, 1972. (Jan.--Sept.) |
| 5. Class visits | Contact representatives from:<br>1. Town Hall, Greenburgh, N.Y.<br>2. State Capitol, Albany, N.Y. |
| 6. Outside lecturers<br>a. Town Supervisor<br>b. State assemblyman<br>c. U.S. Congressman<br>Check:<br>(1) Appearance of speakers<br>(2) Views on basic issues<br>(3) Knowledge of governmental processes | Use of classroom and library resources. |

| ACTIVITIES | MATERIALS |
|---|---|
| C. Culminating | |
| 1. Individual reports (Position paper relating to Democracy.) Respond to question: To what extent should student actions as delegates (in the game) reflect feeling of constituents as opposed to personal beliefs? | Use of game experiences and available library resources. |
| 2. Class analysis (Democracy debriefing period)<br>a. Assimilation and synthesis of facts and understandings gleaned from game playing<br>b. Comments on the technical way in which the game was run<br>c. Analysis between the reconstruction of the real world system and the substantive decisions made by students during the simulation | Class notes, reports, and game experiences. |
| 3. Class review "The Organization of the American Government"<br>a. Executive power vested in Presidency<br>b. Legislative power vested in Congress<br>c. Judicial power vested in the courts | Class notes, reports, and game experiences. |
| 4. Examination relating to specific objectives of the topic | Use of related material collected from class notes, readings, and assignments. |

| ACTIVITIES | MATERIALS |
|---|---|
| III. TOPIC: THE AMERICAN PRESIDENCY | |
| A. Initiatory<br>1. Class discussion and lecture<br>a. Exercise of Presidential powers<br>b. Expansion of Presidential powers in the United States<br>c. Effects of increased Presidential powers on American democracy | Textbook: Fitzgerald, Thomas. The Presidency. New York: Scholastic Publications, 1970.<br><br>Primary Source Materials:<br>1. Commonwealth Club Speech by President Franklin D. Roosevelt.<br>2. First Inaugural Address by President Franklin D. Roosevelt.<br>3. Second Inaugural Address by President Franklin D. Roosevelt. |
| 2. A filmstrip viewing<br>Check:<br>a. Political aspects of the Jacksonian Era<br>b. Economic aspects of the Jacksonian Era<br>c. Social aspects of the Jacksonian Era | "Jacksonian Democracy" (set of 4). 58 minutes, sound, 1970. Encyclopedia Brittanica, Chicago, Illinois. |
| B. Developmental<br>1. Simulation games<br>a. 1787 (Section titled: "Powers of the President")<br>b. Inter-Nation Simulation | Simulation Games:<br>1. Rothschild, Eric and Werner Feig. 1787. Hartsdale, New York: Olcott Forward, Inc. 1970.<br>2. Guetzkow, Harold and Cleo H. Cherryholmes. Inter-Nation Simulation. Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1966. |
| 2. Panel discussion--"Congress Has the Power to Approve Presidential Appointments"<br>Checks:<br>a. Types of appointments by the President<br>b. Vote needed to win approval<br>c. Alternatives by Congress to Presidential Appointments | Game experiences and class notes |

| ACTIVITIES | MATERIALS |
|---|---|
| 3. A motion picture showing Check:<br>a. Roosevelt's ability to provide strong leadership<br>b. Roosevelt's construction of the New Deal<br>c. Evaluation of the New Deal | "Franklin D. Roosevelt's First Term," 32 minutes, sound, 1967. Learning Resource Service, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, Ill. 62901. |
| 4. Use of cartoons to illustrate Presidential functions | Appropriate selection of materials by students. Proper use of research techniques encouraged. |
| C. Culminating | |
| 1. Written work--Critiques defending arguments and decisions resulting from game playing | Experiences gained by participating in the games. Use of forms and class notes taken. |
| 2. Class discussion (Debriefing period)<br>a. Justification of actions, compromises, and decisions reached<br>b. Synthesis of game playing<br>c. Comments on the technical aspects of the game | Experiences gained by participating in the games. Use of class notes taken. |
| 3. Test containing both objective and essay type questions | Use of related material collected from class notes, readings, and assignments. |
| IV. TOPIC: THE INFLUENCE OF INDIVIDUALS AND GROUPS ON POLITICAL POWER IN THE UNITED STATES | |
| A. Initiatory | |
| 1. Readings and class discussion--<br>Topic statements:<br>a. Changes in government policy are brought about by individuals and groups.<br>b. Political parties make it possible for individuals to express themselves regarding government policy. | Textbook: Coyle, David. The United States Political System. New York: Mentor, 1969. (Pages 81-135).<br><br>Audio-Visual Kit: Anatomy of the U.S. Political Parties. Pleasantville, New York: Guidance Associates, 1972. |

| ACTIVITIES | MATERIALS |
|---|---|
| 2. Lecture: Influence of political parties, lobbying, passive resistance and mass media on government action | Appropriate articles, pictures, etc., relating to the topic. |
| 3. A filmstrip showing<br>Check:<br>a. Difference between political parties and pressure groups<br>b. The influence of pressure groups on government officials<br>c. Government regulation relative to political parties | "Anatomy of U.S. Political Parties" (Set of 3). 45 minutes, sound, 1971. Guidance Associates, Pleasantville, New York. |
| B. Developmental<br>1. Play Hat in the Ring (Repeated in order to reinforce concepts, etc.) | Simulation Game: Theis, Paul A. and Donald M. Zahn. Hat in the Ring. Washington, D.C.: The Kiplinger Washington Editors, Inc., 1971. |
| 2. Interviews--<br>Questions:<br>a. What are the advantages of working for a political party?<br>b. How does one become a member of a political party?<br>c. How can a person become a member of a political club in his district? Does he pay dues? Are there any advantages in membership? What are the obligations?<br>d. How may a high school student prepare himself for a career in politics? | Students in each class were encouraged to make appointments to interview present Democratic and Republican precinct leaders and party officials in the Village of Elmsford and the Town of Greenburgh. |
| 3. Case studies-- Individual student preparation of a case study dealing with an individual who has helped influence the political process.<br>Suggestions:<br>a. Civil rights struggle<br>b. Consumer protection<br>c. Care of handicapped | Handouts containing information and consequences of the following individuals:<br>a. Martin Luther King<br>b. Jacob Riis<br>c. Upton Sinclair<br>d. Ralph Nader<br>e. Ida M. Tarbell |

| ACTIVITIES | MATERIALS |
|---|---|
| C. Culminating | |
| 1. Individual reports (position paper relating to the simulation game, Hat in the Ring). Check: a. Methods employed to win delegates b. Methods to amass convention money c. Strategies used to win the 660 votes needed for nomination | Notes, forms, and game experience of participating students. |
| 2. Class discussion (Hat in the Ring debriefing period) a. Results of the game b. Logic of decisions made c. Comments on the technical ways in which the game was run. d. Comparison between real world and simulation events | Experiences and notes gained from participating in the game. |
| 3. Examination relating to specific objectives of the topic | Use of related material collected from class notes, readings, and assignments. |
| V. TOPIC: AMERICA BECAME MORE DEMOCRATIC THROUGH SIGNIFICANT HISTORICAL STRUGGLES | |
| A. Initiatory | Textbooks: |
| 1. Class discussion and readings--People and events responsible for growth in American democracy: a. Washington b. Jefferson c. Jackson d. Civil War e. Reconstruction f. Progressive Movement g. New Deal h. Civil Rights Movement i. New Frontier j. Great Society | 1. Current, Richard N., Alexander Deconde, and Harris F. Dante. United States History. Oakland, New Jersey: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1972. (Units I-IV). 2. Gordon, Irving F. American History Review Text. New York: Amsco School Publications, Inc., 1972. (Chapters 8-12). 3. Garraty, John A. The American Nation. New York: Harper and Row, 1971. (Chapters 10-15). 4. Mowry, G. E. Theodore Roosevelt and the Progressive Movement. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1946. |

| ACTIVITIES | MATERIALS |
| --- | --- |
| | 5. Leuchtenburg, W. E. Franklin Roosevelt and the New Deal. New York: Harper and Row, 1963.<br>6. Lomax, F. E. The Negro Revolt. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1963.<br>7. Wicker, Tom. JFK and LBJ. New York: W. H. Sadlier, Inc., 1968. |
| 2. A filmstrip showing<br>Check:<br>a. Reasons for Lincoln issuing the Emancipation Proclamation<br>b. Lincoln's definition of democracy<br>c. Abolition of slavery and Constitutional guarantee of Black Rights<br>d. Supremacy of the Federal Government | "Civil War and Reconstruction" (Set of 2). 22 minutes, sound. 1970. Encyclopedia Brittanica, Chicago, Illinois. |
| 3. Record playing<br>Check:<br>a. Waging war against the depression<br>b. Mandate for reforms<br>c. Preparation for World War II | Folkways Record Series. "Inaugural Address of Franklin D. Roosevelt." (2 records). 42 minutes, 1971. Folkways Records, 165 West 46th Street, New York, N.Y. 10036. |
| B. Developmental<br>1. Play The Union Divides | Simulation Game: Olcott Forward Publishers, Inc., The Union Divides. Hartsdale, New York: Olcott Forward Publishers, Inc., 1971. |
| 2. Class debate--Suggested problem: The struggle of minority groups to gain equal rights under the law. | Textbooks:<br>1. Cohen, William. The Bill of Rights. New York: Benziger, 1968. (Pages 30-52).<br>2. Smart, Douglas. States Rights Vs. Federal Power. New York: Scholastic Publications, 1971. (Pages 83-97). |

| ACTIVITIES | MATERIALS |
|---|---|
| 3. A filmstrip showing<br>Check:<br>a. Causes and results of the American Revolution<br>b. Civil War amendments and status of former slaves<br>c. Reforms made during the Progressive Movement | Filmstrip:<br>"Meeting the Challenge to Democracy." 21 minutes, sound. Encyclopedia Brittanica, Chicago, Illinois.<br>Textbook:<br>Barlett, Fenton, et al. A New History of the United States. New York: Holt, Rinehart, Winston, 1970. (Chapter 3). |
| C. Culminating<br>1. Individual reports (position paper relating to the simulation game, The Union Divides)<br>Check:<br>a. Student awareness of how a nation's unity and stability can be disrupted to the point of civil war<br>b. Discovery of what degree past events compare to present events<br>c. Experience in understanding and interpreting simple source materials | Notes, forms, and game experience of participating students. |
| 2. Class discussion (The Union Divides debriefing period)<br>a. Explanation of student actions taken, votes cast, efforts made to gain support, and compromises made<br>b. Class comparison of results of the simulated crises to events as they actually happened<br>c. Comments on the technical ways in which the game was run | Use of game experiences and class notes. |
| 3. Examination relating to the five topics taught during the project | Use of related material collected from class notes, readings, and assignments. |

| ACTIVITIES | MATERIALS |
|---|---|
| 4. Interviews--Twenty-five students interviewed in order to evaluate their own feelings and experiences as a result of exposure to simulation | Use of Interview Guide. (Appendix G.) |
| 5. Questionnaires--Remaining students completed questionnaires on their feelings and experiences as a result of exposure to simulation | Use of Questionnaire Guide. (Appendix H.) |
| 6. Survey: Social Studies Attitude Survey (Post-Test) | (Appendix F.) |

Instructional Materials

Listed below are the materials that were available to the project students. Selected materials were used to introduce, develop, reinforce, review, and extend learning experiences required for the topics taught during the project.

I. BOOKS AND MAGAZINES

Barlett, Fenton and others. American History. New York: Holt, Rinehart, Winston, 1970, Chapter 3.

Cohen, William. The Bill of Rights. New York: Benziger, 1968, pp. 30-52.

Congressional Record. Washington, D.C.: Congressional Digest Corp., 1972 (January-June issues).

Coyle, David. The United States Political System. New York: Mentor, 1969, pp. 81-135.

Current, Richard N., Alexander De Conde, and Harris F. Dante. United States History. Oakland, New Jersey: Scott, Foresman, 1972, (Units I-IV).

Fitzgerald, Thomas. The Presidency. New York: Scholastic, 1973, pp. 15-33.

Forrester, William Ray. "The Supreme Court," World Book Encyclopedia. (1972). Vol. XVIII, pp. 798-801.

Garraty, John A. American Nation. New York: Harper and Row, 1971, Chapters 10-15.

Gordon, Irving F. American History Review Text. New York: Amsco School Publications, 1972.

Hamilton, Jack. The Supreme Court. New York: Scholastic, 1972, pp. 50-72.

Harvard, William C. Government and Politics of the U. S. New York: Macmillan, 1971, Chapters 4 and 5.

Lauchtenburg, W. C. Franklin Roosevelt and the New Deal. New York: Harper and Row, 1963.

Lieberman, Jethro. Understanding Our Constitution. New York: Fawcett, 1970, Chapters 2-6.

Lomax, L. E. The Negro Revolt. New York: Macmillan, 1963.

Mowry, G. E. Theodore Roosevelt and the Progressive Movement. Boston: Little, Brown, 1946.

Pauline, Lawrence J., David Goodhart, and Andrew Morzello. Concepts in American History. New York: Cambridge, 1970, Chapters 1-5.

Smart, Douglas. States Rights vs. Federal Power. New York: Scholastic, 1971, pp. 83-97.

Smith, Mary Magruder. American Government. Rockleigh, New Jersey: Allyn and Bacon, 1973.

Wicker, Thomas. JFK and LBJ. New York: W. H. Sadlier, 1968.

Williams, Irving G. Government. New York: W. H. Sadlier, 1970, Chapter 1.

II. PRIMARY SOURCE MATERIALS:

A. Excerpts from political documents to understand the origins of political power
   1. The Mayflower Compact
   2. Fundamental Orders of Connecticut
   3. The Declaration of Independence

B. Excerpts from historical documents to illustrate English political practice
   1. The Magna Carta
   2. The Petition of Rights
   3. The English Bill of Rights

C. A Florida Supreme Court Speech about the Growth of Federal power by Justice Millard F. Caldwell

D. Excerpts from political thinkers to help understand the reasons for separation of powers
   1. The Spirit of Laws by Montesquieu
   2. The Federalist by James Madison
   3. The Republic by Charles A. Beard

E. Presidential statements to illustrate Presidential power
   1. Statement of President Truman relative to the relief of Douglas MacArthur, April 10, 1951
   2. Statement of President Truman relative to veto in the Internal Security Act, September 22, 1950
   3. President Kennedy's blockade proclamation

F. Presidential viewpoints to illustrate Presidential power

G. Presidential speeches to understand the need for increased Federal powers
   1. Commonwealth Club Speech by President Franklin D. Roosevelt
   2. First Inaugural Address of President Franklin D. Roosevelt
   3. Second Inaugural Address of President Franklin D. Roosevelt

H. The Federalist, No. 10 (statement by James Madison to understand political parties)

All of the primary source materials were located in the library.

III. AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS

| TITLE | SOURCE |
|---|---|
| A. Audio-Visual Kits: | |
| Anatomy of U.S. Political Parties | Guidance Associates<br>Pleasantville, New York |
| City Government in Action | Guidance Associates<br>Pleasantville, New York |
| Portrait of a Freshman Congressman | Guidance Associates<br>Pleasantville, New York |
| The Honorable Court: The Supreme Court of the U.S. | Guidance Associates<br>Pleasantville, New York |
| U.S. Government in Action: The House of Representatives | New York Times<br>New York, New York |
| B. Films: | |
| American Revolution | Learning Resource Service<br>Southern Illinois University<br>Carbondale, Illinois 62901 |
| Cuba: Missile Crisis | |
| Defining Democracy | |

| TITLE | SOURCE |
|---|---|
| Franklin D. Roosevelt's C.C.C. | Learning Resource Service<br>Southern Illinois University<br>Carbondale, Illinois 62901 |
| Franklin D. Roosevelt's First Term | |
| Supreme Court | |
| Truman Years | |
| Two Decades of History | |
| C. Filmstrips: | |
| Basic Ideas of Democratic Economics | Encyclopedia Brittanica<br>Chicago, Illinois |
| Basic Ideas of a Democratic Government | |
| Basic Ideas of a Democratic Society | |
| Civil War and Reconstruction | |
| Democracy in America | |
| Democracy: What You Should Know and Why (set of 6) | |
| Federal System - Part I | |
| Federal System - Part II | |
| Franklin Delano Roosevelt | |
| Great Depression and the New Deal | |
| Jacksonian Democracy | |
| Meeting the Challenge to Democracy | |
| Mr. President | |
| Theodore Roosevelt | |
| Why Study Democracy? | |
| D. Recordings | |
| Inaugural Addresses of Franklin D. Roosevelt | Folkways Records<br>165 West 46th Street<br>New York, N. Y. 10036 |
| Harry S. Truman, Dwight D. Eisenhower and John F. Kennedy | |

| TITLE | SOURCE |
|---|---|
| White House or Bust, Seven Steps to the Presidency | Folkways Records<br>165 West 46th Street<br>New York, N. Y. 10036 |
| E. Tapes: | |
| A Thousand Days--Arthur M. Schlessinger, Jr., interviewer | National Tape Repository<br>University of Colorado<br>Boulder, Colorado 80304 |
| American Politics--A Comparison | |
| Kennedy Administration--T. C. Sorenson, interviewer | |
| Making of the President--1960 | |
| Making of the President--1964 | |
| Politics--the Opportunities--Leonard Hall, interviewer | |
| F. Transparencies: | |
| Bill of Rights | Aevac Inc.<br>500 Fifth Avenue<br>New York, N. Y. 10036 |
| Constitutional Amendments | |
| Key Supreme Court Decisions | |
| G. Photographs: | |
| President Kennedy Signing the Nuclear Ban Treaty | New York Times, Monday, September 8, 1963 |
| President Johnson Signing the Civil Rights Bill of 1964 | New York Times, Wednesday, April 10, 1964 |
| President Nixon's Visit to China | New York Times, Wednesday, February 13, 1972 |
| IV. SIMULATION GAMES | |
| 1787 | Olcott Forward, Inc.<br>234 North Central Avenue<br>Hartsdale, N. Y. 10530 |
| Democracy | Western Publishing Company<br>850 Third Avenue<br>New York, N. Y. 10022 |

| TITLE | SOURCE |
| --- | --- |
| Inter-Nation Simulation Kit | Science Research Associates<br>259 East Erie Street<br>Chicago, Illinois 60611 |
| Hat in the Ring | Changing Times Education Serv.<br>Div. of The Kiplinger<br>Washington Editors, Inc.<br>1729 H Street<br>N.W. Washington, D.C. 20006 |
| The Union Divides | Olcott Forward, Inc.<br>234 North Central Avenue<br>Hartsdale, N.Y. 10530 |

## SUMMARY

The project was performed in a middle class suburban high school in Elmsford, New York, with one hundred students representing five eleventh grade classes of American History. One of the classes was an honors group; the other four were formed heterogeneously.

Four teachers, including the writer, conducted the classes, while two student teachers assisted. Preparation for the project began months prior to the semester. The investigator and his associates visited demonstration classrooms, interviewed teachers and students on game methodology, attended workshops and seminars, and studied related literature. Regular conferences were held to select applicable simulation games, to acquaint teachers with game techniques, to plan instructional goals and methods, and to establish evaluation procedures.

Staff meetings during the project concerned such problems as teaching techniques, options for supplementary activities, and more efficient student groupings.

The project involved the use of simulation games in dealing with five topics in American government and politics. Within the

regular course of study, the intent was to modify methodology by (1) emphasizing the teaching of concepts in addition to accumulating data, (2) incorporating basic concepts drawn from the disciplines of history and the social sciences, (3) stressing specific skills and research techniques, (4) providing learning activities aimed at conceptualization through techniques of inquiry and discovery, and (5) promoting the use of multi-media resources.

The games provided actual events in history which, when reenacted, asked students how they would have resolved selected issues under consideration had they been involved in the decision making process during a particular time in history. This was done in order to involve the students as well as to increase their interest in social studies.

Prior to the start of the project, the five classes met together for orientation in game procedure, selection of "class leaders," and directions on availability of supplementary materials. A variety of activities--research assignments, lectures, and audio-visual presentations--preceded the playing of each game to provide the students with necessary background information. After several periods of simulated learning, the classes again were brought together for discussion and review.

The simulation games employed in the project were 1787, Democracy, Inter-Nation Simulation, Hat-in-the-Ring, and The Union Divides.

The course topic titled "The Organization of Government" found class members assuming roles as delegates to a mock Constitutional Convention in the 1787 game. Their "ratified" document for a federal

government was ultimately compared with the actual U. S. Constitution.

In the set of eight games that comprise Democracy, students became involved in decision-making related to the topic "The Organization of the American Government." The simulation provided opportunities for participants to play legislators or citizens, and consider the relationship between these roles in a representative democracy.

Inter-Nation Simulation related to "The American Presidency." In this game, five nations were "created," and student participants were challenged to assume roles of various public officials confronted with a variety of international crises.

Players of the Hat-in-the-Ring game faced the realities of seeking the Presidential nomination. Students were involved in all aspects of the presidential nomination process.

The Union Divides gave students opportunities to explore conflicts faced by the nation between 1850 and 1870. Students were asked to play roles depicting state governors faced with problems associated with the Civil War period.

The games, however, were not the sole method of developing the course objectives. Lectures, discussions, debates, individual and committee reports, audio-visual presentations, field trips, and individualized exercises remained important parts of the educational strategy.

Homework was considered an instructional opportunity for the students to "show" the progress they were making. Quizzes after each simulation game, a test upon completion of the five course units, as well as the individual student's class participation were all elements used in evaluation.

## Chapter V

## PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

This chapter reports the results gathered from data aimed at answering four questions upon which the study is based. After a general discussion, the findings related to each question are presented and discussed.

### GENERAL DISCUSSION

Perhaps the most revealing aspect of this study was the positive notion that the project students' interests in and attitudes toward the study of social studies improved during the time simulation games were utilized as a learning technique. To anyone who had witnessed the students' general discontent a year earlier in grade 10, the following excerpts from one teacher's notes are revealing.

1. After playing 1787 one day, the students agreed to bring their lunches with them for the rest of the week, so they could have an extra thirty minutes of playing time each day.

2. For the conferences required in playing Inter-Nation, players often chose not to take mid-session breaks, and the teachers had a hard time getting them to stop for lunch.

3. In several classes, students played Hat in the Ring for periods of an hour or more, and some students stayed after school to help prepare materials to be used the next day.

Reactions by students to simulation games were similarly

optimistic:

1. I thought INS was entertaining, yet it was good for learning about foreign affairs. This game should be played by every citizen in the world.

2. I've never read or written so much in my entire life because these simulations really aroused all of my curiosity and interest. I only wish I had started this program during last year's World History course.

3. This method of teaching the student in my opinion is far superior in that it gives the student useful information he can use rather than information he will forget.

4. Being the type of person I am, I have been happy with the class because I find more to a learning experience than just books.

5. Simulation is the best way to learn history, especially American History. Why? You live the history; you don't get bored with lectures; you don't get writer's cramp taking notes. . .It was twenty weeks of real mind expansion.

In general, the students' perceptions of the games were that they were enjoyable (partly by virtue of being games), and they freed them from the rigidity associated with the usual classroom structure.

While the results of the data to be reviewed later in this chapter are far from rigorous quantitative measures of "interest," the weight of evidence indicates that most students did react to the games very positively. Some may have expressed enthusiasm more out of politeness then conviction, but the fact that there were negative responses suggests that students reacted to questions honestly. It seems clear that the games were responsible for increased involvement and this factor may have been the most important outcome of the study.

> . . .the essence of a good tool for learning is its self-motivating quality, its ability to capture attention and induce the learner to seek to learn more. And probably the key factor in the failure of so many adolescents

to learn effectively in our schools is lack of motivation.[1]

This study also attempted to determine whether simulation games resulted in improved social studies grades. In order to make this determination, the students were given four quizzes and a unit test, similar to the type given to students taught in the more traditional manner. The average grade of the 100 students was the highest achieved by 11th year students in three years.

Each student was also required to write a brief report at the end of each game, explaining his role and the actions taken during the game. He was asked to explain his votes, his efforts to gain support for his point of view, and his "politicking" and compromises to attain an end. These reports were checked for adequacy of information, logical thinking, and ability to plan strategies. There was improved student insights, concept awareness, and use of a variety of skills.

There was also marked improvement in class participation and completion of homework assignments on the part of the students. They appeared to be more fully involved in the course than in prior years. Also, additional learning seemed to be taking place. In post-game discussions, for example, the students stressed the fact that the games made them more aware and alert; that they were given a sense of "what life is really like;" and that the games helped them to appreciate what decision-makers experience.

There appeared to be a greater realization of course objectives, as compared to prior years. For example, the teachers found two kinds

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[1]Sarane S. Boocock and J. S. Coleman, "Games with Simulated Environments in Learning," Sociology of Education, XXXIX (Summer, 1966), 215-16.

of broad learning outcomes especially, that did not seem to exist to the same degree in prior years: (1) Awareness and insights: The students came away with a deeper understanding of governmental and political forces that affect national as well as international developments, especially those that lead to tensions, conflicts, and wars. They also developed a richer and more realistic appreciation of the decision-making process and what it was like to be a decision-maker; (2) Competencies: The students seemed to have developed negotiating skills, organizational skills, self-confidence, and the ability to cope with the ambiguities and uncertainties of an increasingly complicated world.

The students in the project agreed that the course objectives were realized. More than 85 percent of the participants responded positively when asked whether simulation games made them more aware of the complexities of society. And, in another vein, there was almost unanimous agreement by students that they learned a great deal about people as a result of their participation in the games. Smaller numbers felt that they learned something about themselves, that the simulations affected some of their personal views and beliefs, and that they would pay more attention to issues involving government and politics.

The following comment by one of the students, made after playing Inter-Nation Simulation, captures some of the essence of the above:

> You really see how tough it is. But you pick up a newspaper at night and you read something and you say, "Aw, that guy doesn't know what he's doing. If I were there I'd do something else."

Claims can also be made from the results obtained that the students learned more facts and content principles than in prior years when they utilized more conventional classroom activities. This study demonstrated that simulation games were useful vehicles for learning

facts, acquiring information, and realizing objectives in the affective domain. Generally, the twenty weeks of simulated learning appeared to motivate learning, promote student interaction, present a clearer picture of real-life situations, and provide opportunities for direct student involvement in the learning process.

A fourth area of investigation sought to determine whether simulation games promoted more realistic teaching techniques, student-teacher relations, and student participation.

The project teachers agreed that simulation games not only promoted realistic teaching techniques, but also raised real questions about their own classroom practices. The teachers began to raise their expectations of student capabilities. They tended to examine their normal teaching methods more critically. One consequence was a change in basic teaching patterns. Assignments were based more on individual student ability; discussions called for more reflective thinking.

Student-teacher relations were greatly improved during the project. Generally, the project teachers felt that simulations moved the "control" of the classroom from the teacher to the student, and thereby created a better environment for student-teacher relations. Student responses after the project attested to the improved relations. One student commented:

> The relationship with teacher and student, as well as student to student, was free feeling. Everyone got along. In traditional classes it's always the teacher, and the student has to listen and do what the teacher says. In the simulation game our views were as good as the teacher's. You said what you felt. The teacher accepted your opinion and ideas.

Similar statements were made by other students; not one student suggested that student-teacher relations had deteriorated

during the period of the project. There appeared to be a noticeable increase in student effort and attention to work. Class behavior improved and the number of students tardy or absent from class decreased markedly.

## ANALYSIS OF THE BASIC QUESTIONS

In this section, the writer presents the findings of the study as they relate to the four basic questions listed below:

I. Did the use of simulation games increase student interest in and improve attitudes toward social studies?

II. Did the use of simulation games result in improved social studies grades?

III. Were specific course objectives more fully realized through the use of simulation games?

IV. Did the use of simulation games promote more realistic teaching techniques, student-teacher relations, and student participation?

Each of the four is considered separately.

### Question I: Did the Use of Simulation Games Increase Student Interest in and Improve Attitudes Toward Social Studies?

As indicated in Chapter III, information was gathered from a social studies attitude survey, from direct observations, from interviews with teachers, and from student and parent questionnaires.

A "Social Studies Attitude Survey" was completed by the project students before and after the twenty week course which introduced simulation games as a teaching-learning technique. Fourteen items were

structured to determine the students' feelings about social studies as a value subject.

Table 1 shows the numbers of students who "strongly agreed," "agreed," "disagreed," or "strongly disagreed" with each item before and after the course. The students placed limited value on the social studies before the introduction of simulation games, but changed their opinions dramatically by the time the course was completed.

Table 1

Social Studies Attitude Survey Towards
the Social Studies Before and After
the Use of Simulation Games

| No. | Questions | Strongly Agree | | Agree | | Disagree | | Strongly Disagree | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Before | After | Before | After | Before | After | Before | After |
| 1 | Social Studies is very interesting and enjoyable to me. | 7 | 12 | 28 | 35 | 39 | 41 | 26 | 12 |
| 2 | I am more satisfied being in a social studies class than in most other classes. | 6 | 13 | 15 | 24 | 45 | 50 | 34 | 13 |
| 3 | Social studies is a subject of great value. | 12 | 19 | 52 | 57 | 18 | 15 | 18 | 9 |
| 4 | Social studies develops good reasoning ability. | 10 | 19 | 37 | 44 | 37 | 25 | 16 | 12 |
| 5 | I am willing to spend my time studying this subject. | 7 | 15 | 30 | 39 | 36 | 37 | 27 | 9 |
| 6 | The very existence of humanity depends upon this subject. | 8 | 17 | 28 | 37 | 28 | 29 | 36 | 17 |
| 7 | This subject is one of the most useful subjects I know. | 8 | 16 | 13 | 20 | 54 | 45 | 25 | 19 |
| 8 | Social studies gives pupils the ability to interpret. | 10 | 18 | 32 | 48 | 37 | 23 | 21 | 11 |

Table 1 (continued)

| No. | Questions | Strongly Agree | | Agree | | Disagree | | Strongly Disagree | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Before | After | Before | After | Before | After | Before | After |
| 9 | Social studies will help pupils socially as well as intellectually. | 11 | 18 | 39 | 53 | 36 | 19 | 14 | 10 |
| 10 | Social studies serves the practical needs of students. | 10 | 17 | 19 | 28 | 50 | 39 | 21 | 16 |
| 11 | Social studies might be worthwhile if it were taught differently. | 36 | 48 | 46 | 46 | 9 | 4 | 9 | 2 |
| 12 | I prefer general story books to social studies books. | 44 | 40 | 32 | 30 | 18 | 16 | 6 | 14 |
| 13 | I like working on social studies assignments more than other types of assignments. | 6 | 12 | 10 | 18 | 34 | 30 | 50 | 40 |
| 14 | Given the opportunity, I would teach social studies. | 32 | 40 | 32 | 39 | 15 | 10 | 21 | 11 |

Indicative also of the students' change in attitude toward the social studies were the results of a survey which asked students to rank selected high school subjects according to preferred interest.

As shown in Table 2, only eight students ranked Social Studies first before the course; after twenty weeks of learning via simulation, sixteen students rated Social Studies first. Social Studies was ranked second following the project by forty students compared to the twenty who had given it that position before. Only three students ranked Social Studies lower on the post test. Four students ranked Social Studies first after ranking it third on the pre-test. Overall, Social Studies moved from last to third and moved up in the preference scale more than the other subjects.

Table 2

Student Ranking of Selected Subjects
Before and After Use of
Simulation Games

| | Social Studies | | English | | Science | | Mathematics | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Rank | Before | After | Before | After | Before | After | Before | After |
| 1st | 8 | 16 | 9 | 10 | 41 | 39 | 42 | 35 |
| 2nd | 20 | 40 | 25 | 20 | 21 | 13 | 34 | 27 |
| 3rd | 52 | 32 | 30 | 37 | 8 | 13 | 10 | 18 |
| 4th | 20 | 12 | 36 | 33 | 30 | 35 | 14 | 20 |

In order to determine more fully the reasons for rating the social studies as they did, twenty-five students were asked to explain their reasons for changing or maintaining their ratings.

Students who rated social studies higher commented that during the project the classroom was more like the real world. Learning was emphasized rather than rote memorization. The learning environment encouraged them to grow by developing:

(1) a feeling of responsibility and independence,

(2) recognition of the ways in which information may be used to make intelligent decisions,

(3) an awareness of how human beings behave and how the world functions,

(4) sensitivity to other persons' problems,

(5) the ability to express ideas,

(6) the capacity of intuitive and inductive reasoning,

(7) problem-solving capabilities within a group,

(8) an appreciation of how others perceive them, and

(9) the meaning of commitment.

The following are selected comments from students who rated social studies higher after the course.

1. The course as a whole provided not only an interesting experience but a multi-educational experience. For instance, I received an education in: 1) history, 2) sociology, 3) psychology, 4) economics, and 5) political science. These are only a few of those I feel I benefited from in the project experience. In addition, the project reinforced my ideas and ideals in history. It taught me how to learn from the mistakes of others.

2. I rated social studies higher after the course because I felt that the experiences gained will teach us to make our lives better. It was an exercise in living as well as history.

3. I was in a traditional social studies class last year, and there is no comparison between the two. I feel that the simulation classes offered much more. I was genuinely involved in history and wanted to read, act in class, and write my papers. I feel I got a general perspective of history in various aspects.

Several students interviewed rated social studies lower following the course. Two students rated social studies lower because they felt that the learning of specific facts and information was better accomplished by the traditional approach. A third felt that the simulation games gave him "a skeptical, cynical view of the world."

Classroom observations. From classroom observations made in social studies classes during the students' 10th and 11th years, levels of interest and attitudes were judged. Generally, the observations were based on opinion; the observers noted situations in which the students seemed very interested in the lessons and participated fully, particularly in the project year. There were other situations, however, where student reactions to lessons were negative.

In social studies classes during the 10th year, forty-five observations were made, each lasting a minimum of twenty minutes. During the project year, 302 observations, each lasting a minimum of twenty minutes, were completed in the five classes involved in the study. In the classrooms visited, information was gathered about teaching techniques utilized, activities completed, instructional materials used, project students' interests, attitudes and degree of active participation.

Before comparing the observations noted, background information about the 10th year of social studies is outlined. Similar information about the project year was presented in Chapter IV.

The 10th grade course began with a study of the revolutions which accompanied the decline of feudalism and the rise of modern Europe. Contemporary patterns of economic thought, and various elements of European social, economic, and political life, were traced back to this era.

Additional themes developed some of the major forces responsible for shaping the course of Western Civilization during the past four hundred years. Students considered both the benefits and problems of industrialism that transformed the economy of Western Europe and influenced other parts of the world.

In considering the development of democracy, students considered political institutions and processes in order to deepen their appreciation of and commitment to the values of a democratic society. Nationalism and colonialism, particularly important in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, were explored; the theme of war and peace related to problems of industrialism, nationalism, and colonialism; these were applied to the history of Europe in the twentieth century.

In comparing students during their 10th and 11th year of social studies, differences were noted in student interest and attitudes.

Basically, the project students were taught social studies in the traditional manner during their 10th year. Emphasis was on the acquisition of factual information. Content outlined in the department's curriculum guide was followed closely.

By contrast, the students appeared to be quite involved in the learning process during the project year. The five simulation games provided a teaching-learning technique which emphasized the acquisition of basic skills and "learning by doing." The activities were student-

oriented rather than teacher-oriented. Realistic attempts were made to help the students become better learners. This style of learning, along with more informal seating arrangements, seemed to enhance the interests and attitudes of the students during the project year.

During the 10th year, the students were seldom "involved" in the lesson; they appeared less than enthusiastic with existing instructional practices and materials. Since the teachers were actively involved in most of the lessons for the better part of the period, the students had little recourse but to become passive learners. They had few opportunities to analyze and evaluate the subject matter being studied. The project students, on the other hand, were deeply "involved" during the project year. The teachers seldom dominated the lesson, but instead acted principally as guides and resource people. Students were encouraged to develop their powers of analytical thinking and interpretation. They also received training in arriving at decisions and accepting responsibilities. Students seemed more interested and motivated than they had been in the 10th grade. Consequently, student participation seemed to be more pronounced. They were given opportunities to explore, to challenge, and to discover. During the project year one of the teachers said to his class:

> The participation to date has far outstripped my wildest expectations. We are now in our tenth week of simulated learning and very few of you are either late or absent from class. Most of your homework is completed and you all seem very interested in each lesson.

The teachers also noticed that academically slower students participated more during the project year than in the previous year. They appeared more relaxed and willing to be active members of the class. Several of these students came in during their study-hall

periods to observe the other classes involved in the study. Along with these signs of increased class participation during the project year, evidence existed that students read more and worked harder at home in preparing homework assignments. It was found, generally, that ten or more project students participated actively during each class session compared to five students per class during the 10th year. Table 3 compares the numbers of students who participated in class activities during the 10th and 11th years.

Table 3

Average Number of Individual Students
Who Participated in Classroom Activities
in Grades 10 and 11

| Grade | No. of Observations | No. of Students Who Participated | Avg. No. of Students Who Participated Per Class Session or Per Observation Period |
|---|---|---|---|
| 10th | 45 | 225 | 5 |
| 11th | 302 | 3150 | 10.4 |

Another indication of greater student interest in social studies was the improved discipline of the students during the project year. The number of times the teachers had to stop teaching in order to discipline the students was greatly reduced during the twenty-week project. There were thirty fewer cases of reported discipline problems during the time in which the study was in progress compared to a corresponding period the previous year. Table 4 presents cases of reported discipline problems.

Table 4

Number of Reported Discipline Problems
During the 10th and 11th Year of Study

| Grade | No. of Reported Cases of Discipline | Avg. No. of Reported Cases Per Student |
|---|---|---|
| 10th | 46 | .46 |
| 11th | 16 | .16 |

As revealed by the staff, problems most often encountered during the 10th year of study reflected:

(1) little contact among and between students and teachers,

(2) academically poor students being ignored,

(3) few opportunities for students to analyze and evaluate lessons,

(4) students as passive learners (using a text or, at most, one other instructional material),

(5) little evidence of active participation by students,

(6) much emphasis on subject matter; little on the humanizing aspect of man's behavior,

(7) students coming to classes without books or completed assignments,

(8) students indulging in private conversations or involved in "activities" unrelated to class.

In summary, the data obtained from the observations seemed to show heightened interest and a growth of positive attitudes among the students during the twenty-week project. The teachers noted that students reacted well to the idea of the simulation game format. Although a majority of the students were favorably inclined towards the project, some showed signs of anxiety over grades and a skepticism about the "game method" itself. The teachers were reasonably certain that the use of simulation games helped build motivation, hence the

increase in interest and involvement.

Interviews with teachers. Interviews with teachers involved with the project provided additional information relating to student interests and attitudes toward social studies.

Generally, the three teachers who worked with the participating students in social studies classes during the 10th year felt that most of the students had poor attitudes towards the subject. The students, they said, lacked self-assurance, had little interest in doing social studies assignments, and did not effectively use skills already attained.

By contrast, the four teachers involved in the 11th year project stated that the use of simulation games influenced and modified participants' attitudes toward social studies.

The 10th year teachers and the project teachers (11th year) responded to a series of questions intended to elicit information about the effectiveness of their teaching strategies in achieving desired student learning outcomes. (Appendices C, D.)

The 10th year teachers generally agreed with the absence reports noted later. They complained about student boredom and apathy, submission of incomplete assignments, inattentiveness, poor class conduct, class cutting, and tardiness. The teachers were concerned that course objectives were not being fully realized and were critical of their own "inability" to move their students in a more positive way. Although the teachers felt that student-teacher rapport did exist, they were admittedly dismayed with the students' general behavior and performance. As a group they were aware of the need to initiate strategies somehow that would encourage greater student involvement and take advantage of their skills, interests and general awareness and

understanding of historical events.

In contrast to the negative comments made by the 10th year staff, the project teachers' remarks generated positive feelings about their teaching and the ways in which their students responded to the course.

The teachers attributed their optimism to the introduction of games as a teaching-learning strategy. They felt certain that the games employed were responsible for promoting increased student interest, enthusiasm, and class involvement. The students, they felt, enjoyed the course and found it purposeful. Therefore, problems related to general patterns of behavior were not factors of concern.

Several teacher comments are indicative of the spirited way in which teachers related to games:

1. Simulation games appear to have considerable value as a teaching tool. The enthusiasm of the students for simulation games would indicate that they are an excellent motivational device. During the course of the game, it was never necessary to prod or threaten a student into action. Because game activities were products of the students' own creation, initiative and originality of thought were encouraged.

2. The simulation games were played with a high degree of enthusiasm and realism. It was apparent that most of the students were emotionally involved in their roles. For example, a number of students desired to attend class for purposes of conferences and negotiations during periods when other classes were meeting. The willingness of over half the project students to give up their own free study time in order to involve themselves in additional game activity was unanticipated and indicated a high level of interest.

3. One of the most important values found in using simulations is the added quest for seeking information. It was found that during game playing the number of source books demanded by students greatly increased; more students were seeking out teachers in the department for subject matter information.

Although the project staff agreed that game playing helped achieve course objectives and promote increased student attitudes,

they cautioned against using games as a single teaching technique. One teacher expressed the feelings of the group:

> We will continue to use simulation games in our classes. By being involved in the project, we can say that simulations have a great deal of value, but we feel that their use in social studies classes must not be in isolation. That is, they should complement and not replace the traditional means of instruction. Most certainly, the procedures that a teacher uses before and after a simulation are just as important. We feel that simulations can combat the kind of boredom that can develop in even the most stimulating teacher's classroom when traditional methods become routine.

Student questionnaires. Responses from student questionnaires and interviews taken during the 10th and project years also helped the investigator determine whether changes occurred in attitudes and interests as a result of the project.

The information obtained from these sources strongly suggest that student attitudes during the 10th year were not very favorable. A majority found the subject boring and felt that social studies was simply a course in memorization. They complained about the ways in which the material was organized and presented.

1. Social studies has always been a bore for me. In history, it is nothing but memorize, memorize. And there are all those sermons about becoming a good citizen. It is just talk, talk, talk. I get into a lot of trouble playing around in social studies classes, and my citizenship grades are always poor in there. I am alive today! All those facts and dates and sermons about becoming a good citizen aren't ever going to do me any good.

2. Those social studies teachers are always asking us to read about something that happened a hundred years ago. Man, I want to know about today. I am just no good at memorizing all that old stuff. The French Revolutionary War was a long time ago, and they revolted against the king about rights and all that stuff.

3. I hope that I have an interesting social studies class next year. I like a class which is alive with activity, where I am reacting instead of being told. Class should be like life itself. I could be challenged to take more responsibility for learning. I could encounter real life problems in social studies. I would like a social studies class like that.

Tenth year students generally admitted that they were not working to capacity, willing to participate in class discussion, or completing outside assignments. The reasons varied: feelings of apathy, uncertainties about the relevancy of the subject, unwillingness to "just listen" to a lecture. As a result they did not feel an obligation to attend classes regularly or seek to extend themselves more than minimally. (Appendix E.)

The students reacted differently to a series of questions after their experience with simulation games. (Appendix G.)

1. This project should be a general education requirement, not as history, but just as "life". . . .I found that the people who go places in the world are not the riders, but the thinkers and the workers. The key word to simulation is "initiative."

2. Simulation is the best way to learn history, especially American History. Why? You live the history; you don't get writer's cramp taking notes. . . .

3. The simulation brought the real world into the classroom--a process which is sometimes forgotten. All too often education is so far removed from the real world that a student is not ready for life outside the academic world.

4. It was the most interesting class that I have attended. As a foreign student, my study of American History has been limited. . . .Many courses are just the text, but this course is not only the text, but other books which contain additional materials.

The students seemed impressed with the game approach. They enjoyed working in groups and they appreciated the involvement necessitated by role playing. The idea "of doing," the students

suggested, encouraged them to "want to express opinions freely" and base those opinions on outside reading and research. Responses reflected positive reactions to student rather than teacher input.

> . . . given directions and then left to do most of my work on my own with little help from the instructor has taught me more in a few days than what I would have learned otherwise in a few weeks.

For a number of students, the major attraction of the game was simply that it was fun. The terms "fun," "interesting," and "enjoyable" were used by a majority of the respondents. To some, the simulation approach was enjoyable simply because games were involved. "Playing games makes you more interested in outcome." To others it was the "challenge" or "competition" of the game which made it enjoyable. Finally, some admitted that the games made study easier than what was found in a regular class. Again, as one student claimed, "It's a game, not work."

The responses obtained from the interviews indicated that the project students felt that the games made learning easier, more interesting, more competitive, and allowed them more freedom to work on their own.

In addition to the responses elicited from the interview guides, seventy-five of the project students were asked to react to a series of twenty-five statements calling for responses ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree." Table 5 shows the students' responses to the twenty-five questions.

Table 5

Student Reactions to the Use of Simulation Games

| No. | Question | Strongly Agree | Agree | No Opinion | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | I felt my participation in simulation games was worth the time and effort. | 88 | 5 | 4 | 2 | 1 |
| 2. | The simulation games were personally valuable to me as a learning experience. | 40 | 46 | 5 | 5 | 4 |
| 3. | The simulation games were fun. | 71 | 13 | 7 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. | I would like to participate in more games. | 70 | 15 | 5 | 7 | 3 |
| 5. | Simulation should be used in all high school social studies classes. | 72 | 20 | 4 | 3 | 1 |
| 6. | The simulation games helped improve my research skills to analyze problems. | 24 | 57 | 11 | 8 | 0 |
| 7. | I learned more about people because of simulation games. | 20 | 53 | 16 | 8 | 3 |
| 8. | I was very much involved during the use of simulation games. | 79 | 13 | 4 | 3 | 1 |
| 9. | I learned something about myself as a result of the simulation games. | 12 | 20 | 40 | 21 | 7 |
| 10. | As a result of the games, I now have more knowledge and understanding of American government and its political process. | 20 | 76 | 3 | 1 | 0 |
| 11. | The simulation games affected some of my personal beliefs and views. | 5 | 40 | 28 | 23 | 4 |
| 12. | As a result of the games, I now feel differently about some of the people in my class. | 4 | 28 | 33 | 27 | 8 |
| 13. | The simulation games bothered and upset me. | 0 | 3 | 3 | 19 | 75 |

Table 5 (continued)

| No. | Question | Strongly Agree | Agree | No Opinion | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 14. | I felt that I could have learned just as much without the games. | 4 | 5 | 3 | 24 | 64 |
| 15. | Simulation games are better for "what it is like to work in an organization" as compared to the traditional classroom approach. | 74 | 15 | 2 | 5 | 4 |
| 16. | Simulation games helped me understand the legislative process. | 86 | 10 | 0 | 2 | 2 |
| 17. | Simulation games, compared to the traditional classroom approach, allowed me to understand better "what people are like under pressure." | 73 | 20 | 1 | 3 | 3 |
| 18. | Simulation games helped me understand the dynamic relationship between a representative and his constituents. | 81 | 10 | 2 | 6 | 1 |
| 19. | Simulation games helped me understand how personal and societal values contribute to the adoption of public policies. | 68 | 14 | 3 | 9 | 6 |
| 20. | Simulation games, compared to the traditional classroom approach, are no better for presenting "specific facts and information." | 8 | 32 | 27 | 29 | 4 |
| 21. | Simulation games helped me understand the role of American political parties in American life. | 85 | 8 | 1 | 5 | 1 |
| 22. | Simulation games, compared to the traditional classroom approach, are better for learning "what it is like to be in a position of responsibility." | 78 | 12 | 0 | 7 | 3 |
| 23. | Simulation games made me aware of current issues confronting American society. | 86 | 11 | 0 | 3 | 0 |

Table 5 (continued)

| No. | Question | Strongly Agree | Agree | No Opinion | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 24. | Simulation games, compared to the traditional classroom approach, helped me to develop better persuasion and communication skill. | 94 | 4 | 0 | 2 | 0 |
| 25. | Simulation games, compared to the traditional classroom approach, made me realize more fully that life is a much more complicated process than I ever imagined. | 88 | 8 | 0 | 3 | 1 |

Very few of the students felt that they could have learned as much without the games, and virtually all of them recommended the games for use in all high school social studies classes.

The results show that student preference for simulation was highest in three specific areas: interest, involvement, and certain areas of content learning. Student enthusiasm was tempered, however. For example, the students were divided in their estimate of whether games were valuable for learning specific facts and information.

In conclusion, the evidence obtained from the student reaction questionnaire indicated that (1) simulation games generated student involvement and enthusiasm, and (2) students generally preferred the simulation approach to more traditional techniques.

Summary of parents' opinions. Seventy-eight of the one hundred families responded to a series of seven questions submitted to them on February 5, 1974. (Appendix I.) Their answers are summarized below.

In response to Question 1, "Does your son/daughter seem to be more interested in social studies this year?" parents indicated that their children did show more interest in studying social studies. Parents of twenty-one students declared that their children did not show greater interest.

Question 2 asked if the children discussed the project at home. Sixty-eight parents said it was a topic of conversation. Ten parents reported there was no discussion of social studies.

Sixty-nine parents felt that their children did try to achieve better grades during the project (Question 3). Sixty-five parents felt that more time was being spent on social studies assignments. (Question 4) Question 5 asked if students were observed reading more about social

studies related topics. Sixty-two parents responded in the affirmative. Fifty-five of the seventy-eight parents pointed out, in answer to Question 6, that their children's attitude toward social studies improved as a result of participating in the project.

Question 7 was related to the outcomes of the course. Sixty-three of the parents felt that they were satisfied that the aims of the course had been of value.

Parent comments in regard to the program were positive. Several of their responses are quoted below.

1. My son, Paul, extremely enjoyed working with simulation games, especially on the class newspaper and the writing of the class Constitution. He showed great interest in your class and we discussed this work at great length at home. I am very much aware of what is going on in your class and I thank you for making this an interesting class.

2. Richard does not like social studies from the books. He enjoyed working on the Constitution and likes matters that relate to current topics and debates. I definitely approve of the simulation game technique. I've seen more interest generated and sharing of classroom happenings this year.

3. I feel that the techniques and methods used during the project changed my daughter's attitude towards the taking of social studies and also resulted in a broader learning atmosphere.

4. During the project, conversation related to politics in the home was stimulated "considerably." In addition my daughter's interest in politics remained high in the weeks that followed the project.

5. Our son's interest in social studies increased during the project. He read more materials related to social studies and also spent additional time on his social studies assignments.

Parents' feelings about the project were generally favorable. Nearly all the parents considered the project helpful in bringing about positive effects in their children's attitudes toward social studies.

## Question II: Did the Use of Simulation Games Result in Improved Social Studies Grades?

In order to answer Question II, the project students' semester grades for the 9th and 10th grades were collected. These were compared with scores achieved during the semester in which the project was conducted.

Social studies grades received by the project students during the 9th, 10th, and project year are shown in Table 6.

Table 6

A Comparison of Social Studies Marks Obtained During Students' 9th, 10th, and 11th Grades

| Students Identified | 9th GRADE First Semester | 10th GRADE First Semester | 11th GRADE First Semester |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 90 | 82 | 82 |
| 2 | 79 | 78 | 85 |
| 3 | 84 | 81 | 80 |
| 4 | 80 | 79 | 82 |
| 5 | 78 | 80 | 88 |
| 6 | 91 | 83 | 94 |
| 7 | 67 | 67 | 75 |
| 8 | 81 | 70 | 80 |
| 9 | 85 | 85 | 86 |
| 10 | 84 | 87 | 86 |
| 11 | 86 | 85 | 97 |
| 12 | 91 | 91 | 88 |
| 13 | 66 | 67 | 81 |
| 14 | 87 | 79 | 86 |
| 15 | 90 | 86 | 87 |
| 16 | 67 | 65 | 75 |
| 17 | 85 | 88 | 88 |
| 18 | 77 | 75 | 80 |
| 19 | 81 | 78 | 80 |
| 20 | 78 | 77 | 89 |
| 21 | 91 | 90 | 89 |
| 22 | 75 | 77 | 86 |

Table 6 (continued)

| Students Identified | 9th GRADE First Semester | 10th GRADE First Semester | 11th GRADE First Semester |
|---|---|---|---|
| 23 | 69 | 71 | 70 |
| 24 | 75 | 72 | 85 |
| 25 | 92 | 93 | 95 |
| 26 | 62 | 64 | 70 |
| 27 | 84 | 74 | 83 |
| 28 | 85 | 80 | 85 |
| 29 | 59 | 65 | 70 |
| 30 | 68 | 72 | 75 |
| 31 | 82 | 82 | 86 |
| 32 | 68 | 72 | 71 |
| 33 | 77 | 60 | 75 |
| 34 | 86 | 80 | 90 |
| 35 | 72 | 73 | 83 |
| 36 | 90 | 92 | 86 |
| 37 | 65 | 60 | 75 |
| 38 | 91 | 80 | 80 |
| 39 | 92 | 86 | 90 |
| 40 | 85 | 70 | 88 |
| 41 | 73 | 65 | 73 |
| 42 | 90 | 90 | 95 |
| 43 | 76 | 75 | 74 |
| 44 | 77 | 75 | 80 |
| 45 | 90 | 91 | 90 |
| 46 | 77 | 75 | 80 |
| 47 | 69 | 72 | 75 |

Table 6 (continued)

| Students Identified | 9th GRADE First Semester | 10th GRADE First Semester | 11th GRADE First Semester |
|---|---|---|---|
| 48 | 91 | 85 | 85 |
| 49 | 83 | 69 | 81 |
| 50 | 76 | 75 | 78 |
| 51 | 71 | 67 | 74 |
| 52 | 63 | 65 | 65 |
| 53 | 87 | 90 | 88 |
| 54 | 82 | 87 | 86 |
| 55 | 71 | 75 | 75 |
| 56 | 71 | 75 | 65 |
| 57 | 92 | 94 | 95 |
| 58 | 83 | 78 | 82 |
| 59 | 85 | 85 | 92 |
| 60 | 83 | 78 | 82 |
| 61 | 85 | 72 | 75 |
| 62 | 80 | 81 | 85 |
| 63 | 89 | 90 | 88 |
| 64 | 90 | 93 | 93 |
| 65 | 89 | 90 | 90 |
| 66 | 70 | 73 | 72 |
| 67 | 93 | 88 | 87 |
| 68 | 77 | 78 | 81 |
| 69 | 85 | 86 | 82 |
| 70 | 80 | 80 | 86 |
| 71 | 83 | 80 | 89 |
| 72 | 86 | 85 | 84 |

Table 6 (continued)

| Students Identified | 9th GRADE First Semester | 10th GRADE First Semester | 11th GRADE First Semester |
|---|---|---|---|
| 73 | 65 | 83 | 76 |
| 74 | 86 | 83 | 85 |
| 75 | 91 | 80 | 85 |
| 76 | 81 | 75 | 81 |
| 77 | 83 | 79 | 83 |
| 78 | 84 | 86 | 79 |
| 79 | 78 | 71 | 86 |
| 80 | 71 | 80 | 79 |
| 81 | 82 | 76 | 81 |
| 82 | 84 | 79 | 79 |
| 83 | 88 | 77 | 83 |
| 84 | 94 | 92 | 93 |
| 85 | 96 | 86 | 90 |
| 86 | 87 | 90 | 88 |
| 87 | 70 | 75 | 85 |
| 88 | 92 | 93 | 92 |
| 89 | 91 | 90 | 89 |
| 90 | 90 | 92 | 92 |
| 91 | 79 | 85 | 85 |
| 92 | 82 | 76 | 76 |
| 93 | 81 | 69 | 81 |
| 94 | 94 | 89 | 93 |
| 95 | 84 | 86 | 86 |
| 96 | 89 | 90 | 96 |
| 97 | 76 | 80 | 90 |

Table 6 (continued)

| Students Identified | 9th GRADE First Semester | 10th GRADE First Semester | 11th GRADE First Semester |
|---|---|---|---|
| 98 | 78 | 82 | 87 |
| 99 | 85 | 89 | 81 |
| 100 | 87 | 84 | 87 |
| AVERAGE GRADE SCORES: | 77.5 | 78.2 | 81.3 |

Table 6 shows that twenty project students received a final semester grade higher than semester-end grades obtained during their previous two years. Seventy-six students received grades that approximated their 9th and 10th grade semester scores. Four students received a grade lower in the project term than those received during the other two semesters compared.

As a class, the project group obtained an average grade of 81.3. The class average grades during the 9th and 10th years were 77.5 and 78.2 respectively. Although the grade scores were not examined for level of significance, it would appear that the students enjoyed their best academic semester during the project year.

Question III: Were Specific Course Objectives More Fully Realized Through the Use of Simulation Games?

Data acquired from the project teachers' and participating students' questionnaires, as well as additional information obtained from observations and evaluative instruments, were reviewed in response to this question.

The specific course objectives for the five topics taught during the project were presented in Chapter IV. They covered the following five major areas:

(a) Academic skills (those skills needed to acquire and interpret information),

(b) Social skills (those skills needed to work effectively with other individuals and groups in social situations),

(c) Content (specific information, concepts, understandings and generalizations which would help the individual deal intelligently with his surroundings and experiences),

(d) Processes (those sequences of thinking actions which

> would enable the individual to form or develop concepts, hypotheses, and generalizations and apply them to new situations), and
>
> (e) Values clarification (Experiences which enable the individual to recognize and articulate his own values, to be perceptive of the values of others, and to deal sensitively and intelligently with values and feelings).

The project teachers responded positively to questions on a "Teacher Interview Guide" (Appendix D) relating to course objectives. They agreed that course objectives were more fully realized during the project, and felt that the simulation experience led students to more sophisticated and relevant types of inquiry. In addition, the teachers felt that simulations gave the participants a more integrated view of man by seeing the relationship of political, social, cultural, economic, and historical factors. The project teachers felt that in addition to students acquiring basic skills by means of the simulation games, they gained experience in sifting quantities of information, identifying problems, bargaining and negotiating, organizing and working in groups, and making decisions and value judgments, some under complicated and changing societal conditions.

Several teachers stated this was made possible in microcosm by the Inter-Nation Simulation. Quite apart from the content of the game, INS created a high-pressured decision-making environment of the kind that is becoming increasingly important in contemporary life. One teacher remarked:

> If these skills and sensitivities can really be taught through simulations such as INS, our young people will be better prepared to meet the problems of the modern world. They will also be better able to function in complex and dynamic business and governmental organizations which are becoming both increasingly fluid and organic in structure, and increasingly ambiguous as environments.

The teachers were in full agreement that for teaching content (conceptual learning) and academic skills, the games seemed to be about as effective as conventional methods of instruction. They found, however that simulation games were superior in reaching objectives related to the major areas of processes, social skills, and value clarification (e.g., problem solving).

They felt that the simulation game, 1787, helped develop an appreciation of the difficulties faced by the drafters of the Constitution and an understanding of major governmental ideas which formed a basis for the Constitution. Democracy, they said, increased student understanding of those factors which influence the voting patterns of legislators. The game helped develop insights necessary to understand tactics used by various special interest groups (e.g., "trading," "dealing"). By playing Hat in the Ring, the teachers felt that students more clearly absorbed the facts and mechanics related to the presidential nominating process, the order of the primaries, the distinction between primary and non-primary states, and fund-raising needs.

In addition to stating that many of the knowledge objectives listed for the course were seemingly reached, the teachers also made reference to improved writing, reading, speaking and listening skills. They indicated that students had increased opportunities to outline, paraphrase, support generalizations with specific details, find research sources, and prepare research reports. Since reading assignments were integral to the preparatory work necessary to play the several games, students were advised how to differentiate between statements and clarify distinctions between past and present events. The games also insisted that students role play. As such, practice

was afforded in responding in a group situation. This in turn required students to listen carefully to their classmates if, in fact, they expected to participate in simulated activities.

The teachers believed, above all, that students had more than the usual number of opportunities to share materials with others as they worked cooperatively in behalf of achieving objectives. Tolerance of others and respect for differences of opinions and beliefs were noted by the staff as signs of positive attitudinal growth.

In efforts by the investigator to elicit student feelings about the use of simulation games, twenty-five students were asked to respond to a series of nine open ended questions (Appendix G).

The students felt strongly that the course objectives had been achieved. More important, perhaps, were their general impressions about the value of simulations in improving their feelings toward social studies. The consensus was that because of simulation they became (1) more deeply involved in what they were expected to learn; (2) more concerned about completing assignments and participating in class activities; (3) more aware of the teacher's role as a source for motivating students; and (4) more alert to the difficulties inherent in pursuing democratic principles.

Their feelings were substantiated by the remaining students who responded to a series of twenty-five questions related to the acquisition of information, understandings, and attitudes (Table 5).

Question IV: Did the Use of Simulation Games Promote More Realistic Teaching Techniques, Student-Teacher Relations, and Student Participation?

Information gathered from project teachers and students, as well

as observations of simulation classes, were used to relate to this question.

The four project teachers felt that their individual teaching styles were modified during the course of the project. There was agreement that, by employing more varied approaches to class activities, they had thereby increased student classroom participation and interest.

An awareness of the need for teachers to explain instructions carefully, organize the classroom, and prepare materials was seen as an important reason for improved student behavior.

The teachers, moreover, felt that their roles as moderators, during the debriefing period especially, resulted in students not only learning how to arrive at conclusions, but in having them look to the teacher as someone truly interested in their welfare.

A change in teaching techniques seemed to bring about positive changes in student-teacher relationships. According to one teacher, "the payoff for simulation is a wholesome change of classroom climate in which students drop their artificial facades and meet teachers in more authentic relationships."

Another teacher, in commenting on improved student-teacher relations, stated:

> Student-teacher relations were most definitely improved. The student must act and react to the situation of the role-play. They find themselves in a situation where they are the center of activity as opposed to the traditional focal point, the teacher.

The teachers stated that simulation games were usually very engaging, and this led to a more "open" classroom atmosphere during most of the project.

When asked about changes in student-teacher relations, the

students agreed that they had improved. The majority of their comments suggested that they felt a lot more relaxed and less threatened in class. Several comments follow:

1. The teacher was not involved as much in the simulation games. During the games the students had more responsibility compared to traditional classes.

2. The students were not as controlled by the teacher. The teachers sort of went into the background during simulation games.

3. Well, the students had most of the control of the class while the teacher had very little. This was a real good change of pace.

The use of games showed that the dual role of teacher-judge assumed by the instructor, often a formidable obstacle to learning, could be altered. The judicial role of the teacher, many times, arouses resentment and hostility among students. The use of simulation games seemed to overcome this problem, since the games were self-judging and the outcome of each game decided the winner and indicated satisfactory or unsatisfactory performances. The teacher thereby escaped the role of judge, and one potential source for classroom hostility was reduced.

Also noted was the positive effect the games had on pupil motivation. This resulted in greater pupil initiative regarding classroom tasks, and the limited need for teacher-imposed controls. This, too, had a salutary effect on student-teacher relations.

As noted above, student participation improved markedly. The project teachers noted that many more students completed assignments as a result of the games, generally read and talked more about course material, and participated in more class discussions than did students of prior years.

There was also a marked improvement in attempts to reduce student absenteeism and tardiness. The students' 11th grade end-semester absence and tardy records were compared with end-semester 9th and 10th year records. Students were absent an average of 5.2 days in the 9th grade, 5.3 days in the 10th, and 4.8 in the 11th. This represented 60 fewer absences than reported in 9th grade, and 92 fewer than reported after the 10th grade.

Students were tardy an average of 2.3 times in the 9th grade, 2.9 times in the 10th, and 1.2 times in the 11th. Between the 9th and 11th grades, the number of times students were reported tardy was reduced by seventy.

At the conclusion of each school year, teachers are required to complete a "check list" type evaluation report, part of which relates to each student's progress in classroom participation and social performance. The results of eight items were compared by the investigator between the students' 9th and 11th years. A comparison of teachers' responses revealed the following differences:

1. Participation in discussion--38% increased their degree of participation; and 3% were felt to have participated less.

2. Involvement in classroom activities--43% were said to have been more greatly involved and 6% less.

3. Pursuit of independent study--35% showed greater efforts and 12% less.

4. Evenness of performance--10% were more consistent and 9% less consistent.

5. Critical and questioning attitude--31% improved their technique and ability; 9% were said to have shown less aptitude.

6. Depth of understanding--25% were felt to have greater depth of understanding of subject matter, 4% less.

7. Personal responsibility--15% accepted greater responsibility; 12% were felt to exhibit less.

8. Consideration for others--19% were more considerate; 7% less.

## Chapter VI

## DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

This investigation was an attempt to determine whether a change in teaching methodology would bring about more positive attitudes among students engaged in the study of social studies in the Alexander Hamilton High School, Elmsford, New York.

As a subject, social studies was poorly regarded and rated consistently low on subject preference scales administered by school personnel. Teacher efforts to reduce class cutting, and the number of times students were tardy or absent, were generally futile. Equally unsuccessful were attempts to encourage students to select social studies courses for study during their senior year.

The decision to use simulation games with an entire 11th grade population was prompted after other types of classroom techniques did little to deal with the problem of students whose enthusiasm for the social studies was, at best, minimal.

One hundred students became involved in the use of five simulation games for 20 weeks. Students' attitudes, achievement, outcome of objectives, and teaching-learning techniques were analyzed by the writer on the basis of data collected from observations, questionnaires, interviews, and school records.

## CONCLUSIONS

The findings presented in Chapter 5 of the study suggested strongly that simulation games did enhance student interest and did produce more positive attitudes toward the social studies.

The teachers, students, and parents who responded to interviews and questionnaires agreed that simulation games influenced the noted improvement in student attitudes. These feelings appeared to be substantiated after viewing objective information related to grades, tests and quizzes, classroom attendance, completion of homework and class assignments, frequency of participation in class discussion, and diminution of disciplinary problems.

After using simulation games, teachers noted improved student spirit, attention, and morale. Student lethargy, it seemed, was replaced by student efforts to spend more time in class, visit other classes, invite guests to class, and engage in lively discussions that stretched class time to its limits.

Student comments brought out a sense of increased eagerness to learn. While the students' statements frequently centered on the fact that simulation games were enjoyable simply as games, they also indicated that the games encouraged them to exercise initiative, ingenuity, and judgment, and accept a larger degree of responsibility for the conduct of the classroom itself. The opportunity to grapple with problems from real life, past or present, gave the students a sense of awareness with the outside world which they claimed was not often found in school.

Four questions raised in conducting this study showed that (1) The use of simulation games did increase student interest in and improved attitudes toward the study of social studies. The staff

involved in the project commented favorably on the increased level of student interest and concern. (2) Simulation games did result in improved social studies grades. The social studies first semester grades obtained by the participating students in the 9th and 10th grades were compared with those achieved during the project semester. The average grades of the 100 students were higher than those recorded for grades 9 and 10. There was also marked improvement in class participation and homework assignments.

(3) Data analyzed from the project teachers and participating students' questionnaires, as well as additional information obtained from observations and evaluative instruments, showed that the specific course objectives were more fully realized using simulation games than in prior years when games were not used. Teachers and students believed that there had been an improvement in acquiring academic and social skills, improving sound thought processes, and clarifying values.

(4) An analysis of available information found that the use of simulation games promoted more realistic teaching techniques, better student-teacher relations, and increased student participation.

All four project teachers felt that their own teaching techniques had been broadened and upgraded during the project because of simulation games.

Improved teaching techniques resulted in improved student-teacher relationships. Teachers stated that simulation games were very engaging, and this led to a more "open" classroom atmosphere during the course of the project. The comments of the students revealed that better student-teacher relations were the direct outgrowth of simulation games.

There was a noticeable increase in student effort and attention to assigned work. Observations by teachers and students, and information gathered from official records, supported this finding.

Although it is not possible to verify the impressions of those concerned with the project that improved attitudes resulted solely from the employment of simulation games, there is reassuring evidence that more students working with games advanced in their desire to study the social studies than with previous experiences in a traditional classroom setting.

Simulation games encouraged students and teachers to interact with one another in a comfortable and natural way. Motivation seemed to evolve out of enjoyment for the games. The number of opportunities students had to respond to problems, without fear of reprimand or feelings of inadequacy, urged them to participate even more.

Concern for grouping criteria and appropriate scheduling patterns together with appropriate game activities seemed essential to the success of the project.

The teachers found no one "best" technique in playing the games. Utilization of a variety of classroom procedures was considered essential by the staff. Basic to providing students with greater concern in self-improvement was the establishment of clearly discernable goals and the importance of cooperation rather than competition between and among students.

Although it did not appear that games were more effective for students to acquire factual information, the games required factual knowledge if they were to be played properly. Hence, to support their role playing responsibly, students more readily sought to complete

preparatory assignments.

The use of simulation games may be more valuable as an additional classroom technique than a total approach. The present project suggests that simulation games offer students opportunities for decision-making, but does not eliminate the need or student desire for conventional instructional methods.

There appeared to be a marked increase in the degree of personal responsibility felt by the teacher in directing the learning activities of the students. Teacher "authority" was replaced by a cooperative teacher-student arrangement for class "control." The rules that were followed were the result of game requirements. Student-teacher exchanges were based on game rule interpretations or modifications. This arrangement helped students gain a greater sense of confidence in their own ability to take part in the decision-making process. (Implications for future societal involvement were obvious.) It became obvious, too, that the teacher's function as a resource person and classroom manager, providing information about new materials, classroom techniques and study methods, could be applied to any class regardless of subject.

## IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTHER STUDY

Many references are made in the literature about students being "turned off" by traditional type classroom activities. There is, however, no clear evidence suggesting that students are "turned on" when particular programs are introduced to improve the attitude students have toward their studies. A longitudinal study of students who are given special methodological treatment and then returned to traditional classroom methods may help to determine if attitudes attributed to these

students prior to their special program become less identifiable after a special class experience.

The results of the present project suggest that simulation games may be responsible for improved attitudes toward the social studies. The value of simulation games might be studied in greater depth by continuing some students with this method for more than one semester and comparing their progress with that of "control groups."

In order to comprehend more fully how rules governing simulation games relate to efforts made at improving student attitudes, long term studies could be conducted to examine the values of joint teacher-student responsibility for classroom management.

A repeat of this study with other grade levels may reveal whether the differentials of age and/or grade are important determiners of the extent of attitude changes that might be expected.

A study of such modifications as those made in behalf of simulation games in homework, grouping, and scheduling should be replicated for students without utilizing the game playing technique. This could clarify the importance of simulation games as a factor in the increase of attitudes in students.

The opinions and observations of teachers suggest that a more detailed analysis of classroom techniques may uncover opportunities for students to respond more positively to other than traditional type classroom activities.

# APPENDICES

Appendix A

OBSERVATION OF "TRADITIONAL TYPE" SOCIAL STUDIES
ACTIVITIES DURING THE 10TH YEAR

FORM

TEACHER _____ DATE _____

CLASS _____ LENGTH OF OBSERVATION _____

PERIOD _____

SUMMARY OF CONTENT _____

_____

_____

LESSON OBJECTIVE(S) _____

_____

_____

ACTIVITIES _____

_____

_____

TEACHING METHODS AND TECHNIQUES USED (Lecture, discussion, etc.)

_____

_____

TYPES OF INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS USED (Books, A.V., etc.)

SEATING ARRANGEMENTS (Rows, tables, etc.)

NUMBER OF TIMES (including length) THE TEACHER WAS DIRECTLY INVOLVED WITH THE LESSON

NUMBER OF INDIVIDUAL STUDENTS WHO PARTICIPATED DURING CLASSROOM PERIOD

NUMBER OF TIMES TEACHER HAD TO STOP TO DISCIPLINE THE STUDENTS

ADDITIONAL COMMENTS (Student interests, attitudes, degree of participation, etc.)

Appendix B

OBSERVATION OF SIMULATED LEARNING
ACTIVITIES DURING THE PROJECT YEAR

FORM

TEACHER _____ DATE _____

CLASS _____ LENGTH OF OBSERVATION _____

PERIOD _____

SUMMARY OF CONTENT _____

_____

_____

LESSON OBJECTIVE(S) _____

_____

_____

SIMULATED LEARNING ACTIVITIES _____

_____

_____

ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES _____

_____

_____

TEACHING METHODS AND TECHNIQUES USED (Lecture, discussion, etc.)

_____

_____

_____

TYPES OF INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS USED (Books, A.V., etc.)

SEATING ARRANGEMENTS (Rows, tables, etc.)

NUMBER OF TIMES (including length) THE TEACHER WAS DIRECTLY INVOLVED WITH THE LESSON

NUMBER OF INDIVIDUAL STUDENTS WHO PARTICIPATED DURING CLASSROOM PERIOD

NUMBER OF TIMES TEACHER HAD TO STOP TO DISCIPLINE THE STUDENTS

ADDITIONAL COMMENTS (Student interests, attitudes, degree of participation, etc.)

## Appendix C

### TENTH GRADE SOCIAL STUDIES
### TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

NAME _____

SCHOOL _____

YEARS TEACHING _____

COURSE _____

NUMBER OF STUDENTS _____

1. Do most of your students like social studies? What evidence can you give to substantiate your answer?

2. Are you satisfied with your students' progress (why, why not)?

3. What percentage of your students are either chronically late to class or cut class?

4. Can you give reasons why students are either chronically late to class or cut class?

5. Do you feel that the course objectives are being fully realized? Please explain.

6. If you were a member of a committee trying to improve the teaching of social studies, what changes, if any, would you recommend?

7. What types of teaching techniques do you use? Please number in order of priority.

_____ (a) contracts

_____ (b) individualized instruction

_____ (c) lectures

_____ (d) lecture--discussion

_____ (e) inquiry and discovery assignments

_____ (f) research assignments

_____ (g) trips as educational enterprises

(Question 7 list continued on next page.)

_____ (h) questioning

_____ (i) open-textbook lessons and supervised study

_____ (j) use of media (films, filmstrips, transparencies, records, tapes, etc.)

_____ (k) panels, debates, and reports

_____ (l) role-playing and socio-drama

_____ (m) learning to work effectively in committees

_____ (n) simulation games

_____ (o) others (please list) _____

_____

_____

8. What type of teaching materials do you use? Please number in order of priority.

_____ (a) textbooks

_____ (b) pamphlets

_____ (c) workbooks

_____ (d) newspapers

_____ (e) magazines

_____ (f) reproduced articles, maps, graphs, etc.

_____ (g) films

_____ (h) filmstrips

_____ (i) tapes

_____ (j) records

_____ (k) games

_____ (l) overhead transparencies

_____ (m) others (please list) _____

_____

_____

9. Please describe the student-teacher relations in your classes.

Additional Comments

## Appendix D

### ELEVENTH GRADE TEACHER INTERVIEW GUIDE

NAME _____ SCHOOL _____

YEARS TEACHING _____ COURSE _____

DEGREES _____ NUMBER OF STUDENTS _____

GAME (S) USED _____ LENGTH OF SIMULATED LEARNING ACTIVITIES _____

1. In your opinion, do simulations generate student enthusiasm for the social studies?

2. Do you feel a simulation experience leads students to more sophisticated and relevant types of inquiry?

3. Did the opportunity arise for students to build their own simulations?

4. Do simulations give participants a more integrated view of man by seeing the interconnectedness of political, social, interpersonal, cultural, economic, and historical factors?

5. What skills do participants acquire from simulations?

6. How do simulations affect attitudes?

7. Do simulations allow for better student-teacher relations?

8. Do you feel that simulations have an effect on the teacher's performance. Perhaps you see your students as more able than you thought before, and the result may be that you look to yourself more to explain failures in the classroom.

9. Did you find that simulations caused you to look at your traditional teaching methods with a more critical eye? Explain.

10. Do simulations lead to personal growth: a better sense of how one appears to others; discovery of personal skills, abilities, fears, weaknesses that weren't apparent before; opportunities to express affection, anger, and indifference without permanently crippling consequences?

11. Did the use of simulated learning activities result in improved social studies grades?

12. After using simulation games, do you feel that the course objectives were more fully realized? Explain.

13. Now that you have used simulation games, will you continue to use this method in the future or will you revert to methods and techniques used in previous years? Please explain.

## Appendix E

## TENTH GRADE STUDENT INTERVIEW GUIDE

**Please Print**

DATE _____ INTERVIEW _____

WRITTEN _____

GRADE _____

BOY _____ GIRL _____

NAME _____
(First) (Last)

**DIRECTIONS**

Please answer every question as honestly as you can. This is not a test. There are no "right" or "wrong" answers. Give as much information as you can. If written, use the paper provided.

1. Give reasons why you like or dislike taking social studies.
2. Are you doing the best you can in social studies? Explain.
3. Approximately how much time are you required to spend on your assignments outside of class? How much time do you actually spend?
4. To what extent do you participate in class discussions?
5. Do you spend time voluntarily reading materials or engaging in activities related to your social studies course. If yes, please describe activities.
6. How many times have you been absent or late to class? Have any of these been illegal? Please discuss.
7. How often do you discuss the materials you learned in social studies outside of class?
8. Do you see any value in taking social studies? Please give reasons for your answer.
9. If you were a member of a committee trying to improve the teaching of social studies, what changes, if any, would you recommend.
10. If you have any additional comments to make about taking social studies, feel free to make them at this time.

## Appendix F

## SOCIAL STUDIES ATTITUDE SURVEY

(Please Print)

DATE _____ GRADE _____

BOY _____ GIRL _____

NAME _____

(Last) (First)

# INSTRUCTIONS

Please follow these directions.

1. This is not a test. There are no "right" or "wrong" answers. Just respond to each item as honestly as you can.

2. The questions ask you to tell how you feel about many different things. Your answer to each question should tell how you feel about it.

3. Some questions ask about experience you have had in the past. When you answer these, think back to the experience you have had in the last year or so.

4. To answer a question, circle the letter in front of the answer which seems best to you.

5. Please work carefully and quickly. Do not spend a long time on any one question. Just circle the answer that seems best to you at the moment. Please answer all the items, and give only one answer to each.

6. For each question you are just to tell how you feel about each statement by selecting one of the four ways given beneath the statement. Here is an example.

   It is more fun to play outdoors in winter than in summer.

   A) strongly agree

   B) agree

   C) disagree

   D) strongly disagree

   Which one of the four ways tells best how you feel about the statement: A, or B, or C, or D. Circle the letter in front of the answer you choose.

1. Social studies is very interesting and enjoyable to me.

   A) strongly agree

   B) agree

   C) disagree

   D) strongly disagree

2. I am more satisfied being in a social studies class than in most other classes.

   A) strongly agree

   B) agree

   C) disagree

   D) strongly disagree

3. Social studies is a subject of great value.

   A) strongly agree

   B) agree

   C) disagree

   D) strongly disagree

4. Social studies develops good reasoning ability.

   A) strongly agree

   B) agree

   C) disagree

   D) strongly disagree

5. I am willing to spend my time studying this subject.

   A) strongly agree

   B) agree

   C) disagree

   D) strongly disagree

6. The very existence of humanity depends upon this subject.

   A) strongly agree

   B) agree

   C) disagree

   D) strongly disagree

7. This subject is one of the most useful subjects I know.

   A) strongly agree

   B) agree

   C) disagree

   D) strongly disagree

8. Social studies gives pupils the ability to interpret.

   A) strongly agree

   B) agree

   C) disagree

   D) strongly disagree

9. Social studies will help pupils socially as well as intellectually.

   A) strongly agree

   B) agree

   C) disagree

   D) strongly disagree

10. Social studies serves the practical needs of students.

   A) strongly agree

   B) agree

   C) disagree

   D) strongly disagree

11. Social studies might be worth while if it were taught differently.

A) strongly agree

B) agree

C) disagree

D) strongly disagree

12. I prefer general story books to social studies books.

A) strongly agree

B) agree

C) disagree

D) strongly disagree

13. I like working on social studies assignments more than other types of assignments.

A) strongly agree

B) agree

C) disagree

D) strongly disagree

14. Given the opportunity, I would teach social studies.

A) strongly agree

B) agree

C) disagree

D) strongly disagree

## Appendix G

### ELEVENTH GRADE STUDENT INTERVIEW GUIDE

NAME _____ SCHOOL _____

GRADE _____ COURSE _____

TEACHER _____

SIMULATED LEARNING ACTIVITIES ENGAGED IN (LIST)

_____ _____

_____ _____

_____ _____

LENGTH OF SIMULATED LEARNING ACTIVITIES (DAYS, WEEKS, OR MONTHS)

_____

_____

1. By being involved in simulated learning activities, have your attitudes (feelings) changed regarding the study of social studies?

2. During the time you were involved in simulated learning, did you receive high grades?

3. Do you feel that the learning objectives were realized through the use of simulation games? If yes, how?

4. Do you prefer the simulation approach to more traditional techniques? Why?

5. Do you believe there were changes in student-teacher relationships during the simulation classes as compared to traditional classes?

6. Did you find yourself doing more research as you worked with simulation games?

7. Are there any other claims you can make for the educational value of simulations? If yes, please describe them.

8. If you were a member of a committee trying to improve our schools, when, where, and how would you use simulated learning activities?

9. What did you like most about the simulations? The least?

## Appendix H

### STUDENT REACTIONS TO THE USE OF SIMULATION GAMES

Please Print

DATE _____ GRADE _____

BOY _____ GIRL _____

NAME _____

(Last) (First)

## INSTRUCTIONS

1. Please answer every question as honestly as you can. This is not a test. There are no "right" or "wrong" answers.

2. To answer a question place the letter chosen next to the appropriate space on the answer sheet.

3. Please work carefully and quickly. Do not spend a long time on any one question. Please answer all of the items, and give only one answer to each.

1. I felt that my participation in simulation games was worth the time and effort.

   A) strongly agree
   B) agree
   C) no opinion
   D) disagree
   E) strongly disagree

2. The simulation games were personally valuable to me as a learning experience.

   A) strongly agree
   B) agree
   C) no opinion
   D) disagree
   E) strongly disagree

3. The simulation games were fun.

   A) strongly agree
   B) agree
   C) no opinion
   D) disagree
   E) strongly disagree

4. I would like to participate in more games.

   A) strongly agree
   B) agree
   C) no opinion
   D) disagree
   E) strongly disagree

5. Simulation should be used in all high school social studies classes.

   A) strongly agree
   B) agree
   C) no opinion
   D) disagree
   E) strongly disagree

6. The simulation games helped improve my research skills and also strengthen my ability to critically analyze problems.

   A) strongly agree
   B) agree
   C) no opinion
   D) disagree
   E) strongly disagree

7. I learned about people.

A) strongly agree
B) agree
C) no opinion
D) disagree
E) strongly disagree

8. I was very much involved during the use of simulation games.

A) strongly agree
B) agree
C) no opinion
D) disagree
E) strongly disagree

9. I learned something about myself as a result of the simulation games.

A) strongly agree
B) agree
C) no opinion
D) disagree
E) strongly disagree

10. As a result of the games, I now have more knowledge and understanding of American government and its political process.

A) strongly agree
B) agree
C) no opinion
D) disagree
E) strongly disagree

11. The simulation games affected some of my personal beliefs and views.

A) strongly agree
B) agree
C) no opinion
D) disagree
E) strongly disagree

12. As a result of the games, I now feel differently about some of the people in my class.

A) strongly agree
B) agree
C) no opinion
D) disagree
E) strongly disagree

13. The simulation games bothered and upset me.

A) strongly agree
B) agree
C) no opinion
D) disagree
E) strongly disagree

14. I felt that I could have learned just as much without the games.

A) strongly agree
B) agree
C) no opinion
D) disagree
E) strongly disagree

15. Compared to the traditional classroom approach, simulation games were more helpful in understanding the individual's responsibilities to a group.

A) strongly agree
B) agree
C) no opinion
D) disagree
E) strongly disagree

16. Simulation games helped me understand the legislative process.

A) strongly agree
B) agree
C) no opinion
D) disagree
E) strongly disagree

17. Simulation games, compared to the traditional classroom approach, allowed me to understand better "what people are like under pressure."

A) strongly agree
B) agree
C) no opinion
D) disagree
E) strongly disagree

18. Simulation games helped me understand the dynamic relationship between a representative and his constituents.

A) strongly agree
B) agree
C) no opinion
D) disagree
E) strongly disagree

19. Simulation games helped me understand how personal and societal values contribute to the adoption of public policies.

A) strongly agree
B) agree
C) no opinion
D) disagree
E) strongly disagree

20. Simulation games, compared to the traditional classroom approach, are no better for presenting "specific facts and information."

A) strongly agree
B) agree
C) no opinion
D) disagree
E) strongly disagree

21. Simulation games helped me understand the role of American political parties in American life.

A) strongly agree
B) agree
C) no opinion
D) disagree
E) strongly disagree

22. Simulation games, compared to the traditional classroom approach, are better for learning "what it is like to be in a position of responsibility."

A) strongly agree
B) agree
C) no opinion
D) disagree
E) strongly disagree

23. Simulation games made me aware of current issues confronting American society.

A) strongly agree
B) agree
C) no opinion
D) disagree
E) strongly disagree

24. Simulation games, compared to the traditional classroom approach, helped me develop better persuasion and communication skills.

A) strongly agree
B) agree
C) no opinion
D) disagree
E) strongly disagree

25. Simulation games, compared to the traditional classroom approach, made me realize more fully that life is a much more complicated process than I ever imagined before.

A) strongly agree
B) agree
C) no opinion
D) disagree
E) strongly disagree

## Appendix I.

Dear Parents:

During the first semester of the 11th grade American Studies course, your son or daughter participated in a project based on the use of selected simulation games as a method for studying required topics in American History.

It is hoped that the use of simulation games as well as additional learning techniques and methods resulted in improved instruction and performance.

In order to evaluate more effectively the attempt to improve the 11th grade American Studies course, we will need your support. As interested parents, we would like you to fill out the enclosed questionnaire. Please return it to me as soon as possible.

Your cooperation is greatly appreciated.

Yours in Education,

Dominick A. Festa

Chairman, Social Studies
American Studies Teacher

PARENT OPINION QUESTIONNAIRE

Please Print

NAME _____

(Last) (First)

CHILD'S NAME (S) _____

DATE _____

INSTRUCTIONS

1. Write YES or NO in the space provided before each question.
2. Please answer every question as honestly as you can.
3. Feel free to give any comments in the space provided.

Thank you for your interest and time.

_____ 1. Did your son/daughter seem to be more interested in social studies this year?

_____ 2. Has your son or daughter discussed any aspects of his/her social studies class at home?

_____ 3. Do you feel that your child was trying harder during the project than before to achieve better grades in social studies?

_____ 4. Did your son or daughter spend more time than last year on social studies assignments?

_____ 5. Did your son or daughter do more extra reading related to social studies as compared to other years?

_____ 6. As a result of the project, do you feel your son's/daughter's attitude toward social studies has improved?

_____ 7. As parents, were you satisfied that the objectives of the project were achieved?

## Appendix J

### POST-GAME DISCUSSION RECORD SHEET

TEACHER _____

CLASS _____

PERIOD _____

DATE _____

SIMULATION GAME OR ACTIVITY _____

Question: _____

_____

STUDENT RESPONSES:

Question: _____

_____

STUDENT RESPONSES:

## Appendix K

### SPECIFICS OF THE FIVE SIMULATION GAMES USED IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES LEARNING PROJECT

I. GAME: 1787

A. Objectives: represent special interests strongly; create, through bargaining and compromise, a Constitution for acceptance by contending co-nationalists.

B. Decisions: taxation matters, commercial issues, military policy, and slavery.

C. Playing Data:
1. Age level--High School; Requires a knowledge of American History through period of Articles of Confederation
2. Players: 20-36
3. Time: 6-20 45 minute periods; 2 hours preparation

D. Materials: (supplied) Administrator's manual, 33-1/3 rpm record, 4 duplication masters, delegates' handbooks, delegates' profile cards, wall chart
(Special Equipment) 33 1/3 rpm phonograph

E. Roles: George Washington, James Madison, and Benjamin Franklin, and one journalist. Other players are fictional convention delegates at mock Constitutional Convention. Each delegate represents one of eight interests in four conflicts: strong vs. weak central government; landowners vs. commercial interests; northern vs. southern states; large vs. small states.

II. GAME: Democracy

A. Objectives: to gain reelection to Congress by helping pass and defeat legislation in accord with constituents wishes. Obtain satisfaction of one's interest proportionately with socio-economic characteristics.

B. Decisions: Where to negotiate, and exchange (logrolling). How best to satisfy constituency.

C. Playing Data:
1. Age level--High School to adult
2. Players: 6-11
3. Time: 3-12 45 minute periods; 1 hour preparation

D. Materials: (supplied) Administrator's manual, players' manuals, playing forms, work sheets, identification and issue cards

E. Roles: Representatives in congressional legislative session; citizens at civic action meeting.

III. GAME: Inter-Nation Simulation

A. Objectives: to maintain or achieve a high standard of living for the citizenry of one's nation; deal satisfactorily in foreign affairs.

B. Decisions: trade, alliance, war.

C. Playing Data:
1. Age level--High School to adult
2. Players: 24-50 (5-6 teams)
3. Time: 4-8 45 minute periods; normal class preparation

D. Materials: (supplied) Administrator's manual, pads of stationery, calculating tables, playing forms (supplemental) Participants' manual

E. Roles: Teams represent nations; players represent heads of state, foreign policy advisors, domestic affairs advisors, diplomatic representatives, leaders of opposition party.

IV. GAME: Hat in the Ring

A. Objectives: to win Presidential nomination (1st stage--win delegates in primary and non-primary states; amass money) (2nd stage--win 660 votes at convention, for nomination)

B. Decisions: Stage 1--which states to campaign for, and how; whether to raise money first; whether to enter primaries. Stage 2--caucus, demonstration, entertainment, call for ballot, make deals with other candidates.

C. Playing Data:
1. Age level--High School to adult
2. Players: 3-27 (3-8 teams)
3. Time: 6-12 45 minute periods; 2 hours preparation

D. Materials: (supplied) Players' manuals, board (map), cards, play money

E. Roles: Candidates, competing for party Presidential nomination. Some players may take roles as campaign manager, treasurer, etc. Teams represent a campaign committee.

V. GAME: The Union Divides

A. Objectives: awareness of crisis-by-crisis dissolution of national unity; comparisons of past and present situations, economic, political, and philosophical. Form alliances for majority votes in interests of own constituency.

B. Decisions: with whom and for what to ally.

C. Playing Data:
1. Age level--Junior High School to adult
2. Players: 20-30 (4 political groups)
3. Time: 8-20 45 minute periods; 2-3 hours preparation

D. Materials: (supplied) Teaching guide, 33 1/3 rpm record, 30 profile cards, 30 Governors' handbooks, 8 copies of newspaper The Capital Gazette, 3 telegrams (2 copies each), log of the Baltic, 2 wall charts (sample score sheet, diagram of Baltic's position), reference volume for classroom library (The Causes of the Civil War)
(supplementary) 33 1/3 rpm phonograph

E. Roles: Governors of contentious states (4 political groupings: Northern Moderates; Northern Abolitionists; Southern Moderates; Southern Extremists) (two students can play one governor, or governors can be omitted from the bottom of the supplied list if the number of students differs from 30).

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